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ABSTRACT

This report examines the historical background, the current status, and the future outlook for urban-metropolitan schools in Missouri. The phenomenon of urbanization and its impact on human group living, including the educational process is explored. A demographic view of the five metropolitan centers of Missouri is provided in terms of the populations of these centers, their composition, and their shifts. Particular issues and concerns identified by the administrators of Missouri's urban-metropolitan schools are discussed in detail. These include financial concerns, student related concerns, community involvement and related issues, curriculum issues, teacher related concerns, administrative concerns, school desegregation-integration issues, and school legislation issues and problems. Recommendations and suggestions related to these concerns are made. In addition, descriptions of fifty-one effective, outstanding and exemplary programs and projects developed in a number of Missouri urban-metropolitan schools are summarized. (Author/EB)

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A Study of Urban-Metropolitan

Education in Missouri

Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education

1978

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
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FOREWORD

About our nation, one fact stands clear: America has become an urban society.

Of all the broad historical movements which have shaped this country over the last century, urbanization is the most tangible. The rural population has steadily dwindled while metropolitan areas have mushroomed in size. While many individuals resist urbanization or nourish dreams of returning to a more rural lifestyle, the concentration of industrial, commercial, scientific, financial, cultural, and human resources continues.

Schools inevitably have been caught up in the complex phenomenon of urbanization and have suffered many of the problems attending the growth and transformation of America's cities. In fact, in recent years, the problems confronting urban schools seem to have grown in geometric proportion and have been recited so frequently that many people consider urban education to be a lost cause. Such a "write-off" is a terrible mistake. It is a delusion to think that cities can exist as cohesive, stable communities without good public schools.

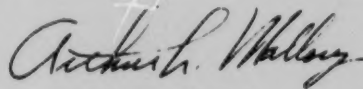
This report is about urban-metropolitan education in Missouri; it is based on the thesis that quality public education in the urban environment is both attainable and essential.

Urban-metropolitan education is a vital part of the statewide educational enterprise. Urban metropolitan school systems enroll approximately 50 percent of all the students in Missouri public schools; they receive about half of the state financial aid distributed annually to school districts.

The problems of urban-metropolitan education are not confined to the state's two largest cities, St. Louis and Kansas City. Thus, this report should be of wide interest. It examines the historical background, the current status, and the future outlook for urban-metropolitan schools in Missouri. It is our hope that this report will provide a basis for solving some of the problems which face citizens and educators in our urban-metropolitan centers.

The State Board of Education has named urban education as one of its priorities for 1978-79. The Board and the staff of the Department of Elementary and Secondary Education are committed to making every effort within their means to improve education for the children and youth in Missouri's urban-metropolitan communities. This report will serve as a reference for the State Board and the Department now and in the future.

If present trends continue, urban education is likely to become an increasingly important topic in the years ahead. We hope this report will be useful to people throughout the state in preparing for the future.



Arthur L. Mallory
Commissioner of Education

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The Department of Elementary and Secondary Education expresses deep appreciation and gratitude to the members of the Urban Education Study Committee for their dedication, support, and tireless effort in the completion of this document.

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**PARTICIPATING MISSOURI SCHOOL DISTRICTS
IN THE URBAN-METROPOLITAN
SCHOOL STUDY**

Affton
Bayless
Blue Springs
Brentwood
Clayton
Columbia
Ferguson-Florissant
Hancock Place
Hazelwood
Hickman Mills
Independence
Joplin
Kansas City
Kirkwood
Maplewood-Richmond Heights

Mehlville
Normandy
Park Hill
Parkway
Raytown
Ritenour
Riverview Gardens
Rockwood
St. Joseph
St. Louis City
Sedalia
St. Louis Special School District
Springfield
University City
Valley Park
Webster Groves

Acknowledgment

The Department of Elementary and Secondary Education is grateful to the participating school districts for their encouragement and understanding throughout the period of this study.

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INTRODUCTION

This volume is a report of the efforts of a committee of some 23 Missouri educators brought together by the State Department of Elementary and Secondary Education for the purpose of describing current public education at the elementary and secondary school levels in the urban-metropolitan centers of Missouri. To accomplish this objective, the Committee initiated a survey study of public school districts throughout urban-metropolitan Missouri. Throughout this report, the terms "urban" and "metropolitan" are used interchangeably.

Urban education in Missouri is important for the following reasons: First, the urban-metropolitan schools of Missouri provide educational opportunities for approximately half of the elementary and secondary school learners. Second, these school districts receive some 46 percent of the state's School Foundation Fund annually. Third, and perhaps the most compelling reason, most urban-metropolitan school districts are currently facing a series of problems which, by any definition, can be described as critical. These problems are, or seem to be, inextricably bound to the problems and difficulties currently being experienced by the communities they serve. No doubt, other compelling reasons could be cited for the importance of an updated description of Missouri urban-metropolitan education, but the three cited above would appear to constitute sufficient justification.

Therefore, the chapters which make up this report describe the results of the Urban Education Committee's study. These chapters, almost without exception, also provide suggestions, recommendations, and a list of suggested readings which school people, in particular, and Missourians, in general, might find helpful in their constant endeavors to help the schools of our state fulfill their obligations.

This report consists of 14 chapters grouped under four headings which constitute the four major sections of the book. We have called the first of these major sections, **THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS**. This section consists of two chapters designed to give the reader insight into the background of our urban-metropolitan school issues, problems, and concerns. Chapter I offers what we believe is an interesting and provocative view of the phenomenon of urbanization and its impact on human group living, including the educational process. In the second chapter of this section, a clear picture has been drawn of the urban scene itself, including its schools. This chapter, in substance, highlights the crises which both the cities and their schools face across the nation.

In the second section of the document entitled, **A SURVEY STUDY OF MISSOURI'S URBAN CENTERS AND SCHOOLS**, the Committee presents a summary of the study it conducted. The first chapter of this section provides the reader a demographic view of the five metropolitan centers of Missouri,

largely in terms of the populations of these centers, their composition, and shifts. Chapter IV is perhaps the key to all of the others that follow, since it summarizes the data collected through the Committee's Questionnaire Study from 31 of the 39 school districts contacted. In a real sense, all of the remaining chapters of Sections III and IV are based on these data.

Section III of the Manual, entitled, **URBAN SCHOOL ISSUES AND CONCERNS**, consists, first, of a highly significant "introduction" which describes that challenge of the urban education crisis issued by the Council of the Great Cities Schools to those cities and to the nation as a whole. Following are eight chapters, each of which deals at length with one of the following areas of issues and concerns identified by administrators of Missouri's urban-metropolitan schools: financial concerns, student-related concerns, curriculum issues and concerns, teacher-related concerns, community involvement and related issues, administrative concerns, school desegregation-integration issues, and finally, school legislation issues and problems. In general, each identifies a priority which the Missouri urban-metropolitan school districts view as an area of concern, presents background material related to that concern, and then discusses it in some detail. Finally, in almost every chapter, the Committee draws tentative conclusions on the basis of the information currently available relating to the concern under discussion and makes several recommendations and suggestions which school districts and interested lay persons might find helpful.

This section is the main body of the report and gives the reader general insight into the problems, concerns, and issues which Missouri's urban-metropolitan schools are currently facing.

The fourth and last section of the report has been entitled, **SUGGESTIONS AND OPTIONS**. In it we have included a chapter which we believe Missouri educators and lay persons will find both exciting and compelling. This last chapter summarizes about fifty-one outstanding and exemplary programs and projects that have been developed and found effective in a number of Missouri urban-metropolitan schools. Space limitations did not permit us to give as detailed a description of each of these projects as we would have liked, nor, indeed, were we able to include more than a fraction of the number of such programs brought to our attention. It is our hope—indeed, our strong conviction—that these brief descriptions will prove helpful as idea generators throughout the state. Their adaptation and/or direct implementation in our urban-metropolitan schools may assist in a significant way to resolve, or at least to ameliorate, some of the problems and issues encountered.

Now, perhaps a few words should be said about the Urban Education Committee itself. The following brief information will, we hope, meet that need.

At the beginning of the school year 1975-76, as noted earlier in these introductory remarks, the Commissioner of Education authorized the formation

of an URBAN EDUCATION COMMITTEE whose primary mission was to develop a document accurately describing urban education in Missouri. Educators representing the urban centers of Missouri served on this Committee and are listed on page ii.

Early in its work, the Committee agreed that the *Urban Education Report* would be an informational document. It was not one to be devoted to the airing of disenchantments, grievances, and complaints; nor was it to be an exercise in self-congratulation. The Committee also decided that the principal Missouri urban centers reported on would be the following: (1) Metropolitan St. Louis—excluding, of course, those portions of this area located in the State of Illinois and in the exurban areas of St. Charles and Jefferson Counties; (2) Metropolitan Kansas City—excluding sections of that metropolis that are outside of the State of Missouri; (3) the Springfield area; (4) the Columbia/Jefferson City area; and (5) the St. Joseph area.

Having identified the areas to be included in the report, the Committee next roughly outlined the probable contents of the report. It was then decided that such content would require a survey study of the municipalities comprising the five major urban-metropolitan centers and the school districts serving them. Much effort, then, went into the development of two data-gathering instruments—one for the municipalities and one for the school districts. Once these instruments were developed, they were sent to the target populations for completion and return. Responses from the school districts far exceeded expectation. The data submitted by 31 of the 39 urban-metropolitan school districts were computerized and provided the basis for the summaries in Chapter IV of this report.

Committee members were assigned to several subcommittees or work groups. Each group interpreted the data related to ONE particular topic of the study. In addition to data from the study, each subcommittee obtained information from other sources. Selected persons from each subcommittee prepared chapters reflecting the Committee's findings; consequently, while some editing has occurred, writing styles and methods of reporting vary from chapter to chapter.

In the light of two years' work conducted by the Urban Education Committee, we are convinced that this report does, indeed, provide a reasonably accurate description of the issues in contemporary public elementary and secondary education in urban-metropolitan Missouri. We are hopeful that this report—with its suggestions, recommendations, and lists of selected readings—will be the basis for a number of problem-solving efforts and projects.

Another benefit growing out of the Urban Education Committee's work is the knowledge that the urban-metropolitan schools of our state—though faced with many as yet unresolved issues and problems—have remained sound institutions. We are certain that Missourians in all walks of life see

their schools—both urban and rural—as a solid pillar of the state's foundation and that they will both think and act responsibly in the years ahead to strengthen and preserve that pillar. It is, then, with optimism and hope that we view future education in the State of Missouri.

"A Preview of Coming Attractions"

The most significant fact, one quickly learns, about urban school problems is that there are no quick and simple solutions.

Robert R. Woock, a noted urban educator, has written: "If the problems of urban areas and urban schools are frightening to us, they are also mandating us to reevaluate objectives, methodology, content, and virtually everything we know (or thought we knew) about education in general. Moreover, we are beginning to see that what is happening in large urban areas is really a preview of coming attractions for a major portion of our country."

There are two crucially important points in relating the process of education to the urban crisis. First, the urban crisis is not confined to schools; it is difficult to separate schooling from other problems of the community. Second, the trend over the past decades makes it quite clear that suburban and even rural communities will not escape for long the conditions which are now evident in the cities.

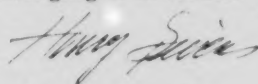
The "urban crisis" is becoming the national crisis. Urban education, then, must be concerned with a variety of difficulties which characterize the schools now attended by the majority of American youth. The caliber of urban schools has a direct relationship to the economic, political, cultural and social life of cities themselves. As the quality of schooling declines, the effects on the school, the student and the city are critical. In an age of education, students need quality education to survive.

The achievement of quality education will require making some fundamental changes in the nature of local educational systems. Many of the changes will involve the relationships between the schools and the community. Because the schools cannot be separated from other parts of society, participation by persons inside the school system, by persons in the community at large, and by persons in other major institutions is imperative for the improvement of public education. Perhaps the most difficult task will be that of looking at schools differently, thinking in different ways about their purposes, and assessing how successful they are in achieving those purposes.

Realistically, the only viable approach to resolving some of the complex problems of education in urban-metropolitan areas is through the development and implementation of a master plan tailored to the specific needs of a particular urban area. Such a plan must deal with causes and symptoms, must be conceived within a framework of overall urban problem solving rather than education alone, and must encompass all educational levels. Moreover, this plan must reflect a considerable expansion and enrich-

ment of what now constitutes "education." Within the educational plan, stress must be placed on developing and implementing appropriate curricular designs, consumer participation, staff development programs, supportive services and evaluation. Finally, these efforts must be correlated with other facets of the urban-metropolitan scene—housing, employment, recreation, health and many others. This kind of master plan for urban education will not

emerge overnight, of course. It will take time, work and the changing of attitudes.



Henry Givens, Jr.
Assistant Commissioner
Division of Urban and Teacher Education

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SECTION I

THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

CHAPTER I

THE URBAN LANDSCAPE: SCHOOLS AND CITIES IN A TIME OF CRISIS

By

Bernard C. Watson, Ph.D.
Vice President
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Over one-fourth of the total population and over half of the minority population of this country reside in urban centers (1)! Bearing a disproportionate share of the country's fiscal burdens in terms of human services and taxes, the cities' struggle to remain solvent and to provide a livable environment for their citizens in the face of increasing costs, municipal overburden, eroding tax bases, labor strife, high unemployment, housing shortages, and rising crime rates. In the midst of this panorama of crisis, urban schools are experiencing massive staff cuts, teacher strikes, court-ordered desegregation plans, and rapid population shifts concurrent with legislative and citizens demands for increased quality of services, academic standards, and methods of accountability.

The fiscal problems which have plagued the entire country over the past five years are amplified in the case of education. Costs have risen faster in the area of schooling than they have in other sectors of the economy, in part because education is a highly labor-intensive operation. Because capital is not easily substituted for labor, rapid productivity increase does not occur in schools as it does in other industries. From 1947 to 1967, for example, the per pupil cost of education rose at a rate of about 6.7% annually, while the overall national price index only increased 1.4% each year. From 1967 until 1971, per pupil costs increased by 7.7% annually, a large part of this (approximately 40%) attributable to increased teachers' salaries. The factor of rising costs obviously reflects other policy consideration, such as the growth and strengthening of teachers' unions which can effectively bargain for higher wages, as well as the growth of the educational enterprise as a whole.

Meanwhile, taxpayer response to increased education costs has been progressively more negative over the years. While about 72% of the proposed school bond levies were approved by the voters in 1962, by 1971 the proportion of approved levies had dropped to 46%. Increased revenues for schools have not kept pace with rising costs in many districts, particularly in urban areas.

Since most school revenues are derived from local school district property taxes (2), the fact that for the past twenty years urban property values have been declining sharply relative to their surrounding metropolitan areas (3) impacts severely on the fiscal capability of such districts. In addition, expenditures and taxes for noneducational services are considerably higher in cities than they are in other geographic areas (4), forcing schools to compete, often unsuccessfully, for an equal share of the municipal tax dollar.

The need for increased school revenues is further exacerbated in many urban districts by the existence of higher costs of land, the necessity for construction and maintenance of school buildings, for professional and nonprofessional employees, for security measures, and for special educational services needed by many students (5). While recent attempts at school finance reform have sought to address the complex dilemma of urban needs through adjustments to existing state school finance formulas (6), most such reforms have been initiated in a piecemeal fashion as addenda to existing finance statutes rather than in the form of comprehensive legislation which integrates principles of school funding with considerations of equality in education, access, programming, and state and local accountability.

The relationship between issues of school finance and other measures of educational opportunity has been recognized by some scholars and educators, yet most legislative and judicial approaches to funding matters have carefully avoided reference to school segregation or educational programs which serve to reinforce the existing class and racial distinctions in American society. As Warner, Havighurst and Loeb observed over thirty years ago:

The American school . . . reflects the socioeconomic order in everything that it does; in what it teaches, who does the teaching, who does the hiring and firing of teachers, and what the children learn in and out of the classroom. . . The curricula of the secondary schools provide early pathways to success and failure, they operate in a different way by

the children of higher and lower levels. It is apparent that the high school curriculum is a mechanism that helps perpetuate our class order (7).

The connection between funding and other social inequities as fueled by the tradition of local control of the schools was pointed out in an Amicus brief in the school finance case of *San Antonio v Rodriguez* (8), argued before the Supreme Court in 1972:

It should be noted that the combination of high city taxes and relatively poorly funded city schools not only fuels the white middle class flight to the suburbs, but the "Balkanization" of school finance frees the suburbanite of any financial stake in city schools and helps to motivate suburban resistance to integration involving the inferior city schools. This is a vicious circle which cannot be broken without reform of the way public schools are funded (9).

While the Court did not find this argument compelling in its decision to uphold the Texas school finance statute despite funding inequities, other legal scholars have maintained that:

School inequality between suburbia and central city crucially reinforces racial isolation in housing; and the resulting racial segregation of the schools constantly inhibits progress toward funding a therapeutic answer for the elimination of school inequality. If we are to exorcise the evils of separateness and inequality, we must view them together, for each dimension of the problem renders the other more difficult to solve—racially separate schools inhibit elimination of school inequality, and unequal schools retard eradication of school segregation (10).

The Supreme Court's decision in *Rodriguez* to uphold the constitutionality of Texas' method of school finance was based on the holding that the use of the local property tax to finance schools bears a rational relationship to the legitimate state interest in promoting local control over education. However, as Justice Marshall stated in his dissent to that decision:

If Texas had a system truly dedicated to local fiscal control, one would expect the quality of the educational opportunity provided in each district to vary with the decision of the voters in that district as to the level of sacrifice they wish to make for public education. In fact, the Texas scheme produces precisely the opposite result. Local school districts cannot choose to have the best education in the State by imposing the highest tax rate. Instead, the quality of the educational opportunity offered by any particular district is largely determined by the amount of taxable property located in the district—a factor over which local voters can exercise no control (11).

Although a victory for the myth that local fiscal "control" denotes political home rule was won by the Supreme Court in *Rodriguez*, several state courts have since declared finance schemes based on the local property tax to be invalid on state constitutional

grounds (12). These decisions have resulted in an increased awareness of state responsibility for many "discretionary" actions of local boards, as well as for the general quality of education provided across the state (13).

Accountability

The need for the development of academic standards and methods of accountability is closely tied to the issue of school financing in light of current public skepticism about the efficiency and effectiveness of schools and about the validity of the previously accepted assumption that increased expenditures will improve the quality of education. The "evidence" of low test scores, as well as social science research claiming that some children simply cannot learn despite increased funding for educational programs (14), has served to undermine attempts at school finance reform and increased funding (15). Meanwhile, critics such as Holt, Illich, Kozel, Silberman, Coleman, and Jencks (16), who claim that schools "don't work" or "don't make a difference," have been joined by those who are reluctant to support attempts by school districts to improve the quality of educational programs and services.

A number of state and local boards have instituted the use of minimal competency tests for student advancement and graduation, and have tied such testing to individualized remedial assistance for students who require additional help to meet competency levels. In Arizona, as of January 1, 1976, students must demonstrate a minimal level of competence in reading, computation, and writing before they can receive the eighth grade and high school diplomas. The definition of the levels of proficiency is established by the State Board of Education, as is a uniform statewide evaluation program. The Michigan Educational Assessment Program tests all state students in reading and math in 1st, 4th, and 7th grades in order to pinpoint specific educational needs of students in regard to minimal skill objectives. Similarly, the New York Board of Regents' Statewide Evaluation Plan distributes basic competency tests in four subject areas as part of an experimental program designed to ensure that every child acquires certain basic skills. In Denver, Colorado, the school district developed a battery of Proficiency and Review tests in 1958 after employers complained that graduates did not possess the basic skills needed to function effectively in entry-level jobs. Students must now demonstrate a certain level of proficiency on these tests before they can receive a high school diploma. The tests are also used in earlier grades to trigger remedial services for those students who need them. A similar requirement was instituted by the Gary, Indiana, Board of School Trustees in 1974, and one is being developed by the New York City education officials at the present time. More recently, Missouri has developed and mandated its own Basic Essential Skills Test (BEST).

Such efforts are especially needed in large urban school districts where student achievement levels have, for a number of reasons, been consistently and significantly below national norms in recent years. That low achievement levels can be the basis for legal challenges to the school districts involving even monetary damages has been highlighted by several court cases since 1970. For example, in *Doe v. San Francisco Unified School District*, a student who graduated from the city school system sought \$1,000,000 in monetary compensation "for deprivation of what is unquestionably one of the most fundamental necessities... the ability to read and write" (17). The charges were that the school district, board of education, and superintendent failed to use reasonable care in educating the plaintiff and failed to meet the standard of professional conduct prescribed by the California Education Code (18), when they allowed him to finish twelve years of school and graduate with passing grades and with no remedial help although he could not read and write above an elementary school level.

In another case brought against the Philadelphia school district (19), the parents of a school-age youngster brought a civil rights action against school board members and district personnel, asking for damages in the amount equal to the cost of sending their son to a private school. They stated that the city schools were "inadequate and unsafe" based on measured standards of student performance compared to other school districts in the state and the nation, preparation for competition in the labor market and higher education, and the number of incidents of violence, extortion, and gang rule (20).

Their arguments were strengthened by the fact that courts have often rejected the notion that if parents find public schools unacceptable, they should bear the expense of sending their children to private schools (21). Courts have also recognized the right of parents to remove their children from dangerous schools notwithstanding compulsory education requirements (22).

Discipline and Safety

The safety of city schools has become a heated issue attracting much media attention in recent years; such attention has amplified parent and other citizen demands for school accountability. Beginning in 1968, discipline in the schools has been high on the list of concerns expressed by American citizens in the annual Gallup Poll of Public Attitudes Toward Education. For the past few years, discipline has placed number one on the list of concerns, reflecting the growing fear that American schools are unsafe places for parents to send their children each day. This fear, of course, has been augmented by the reports, studies, hearings and discussions conducted by educators, social scientists, concerned citizen groups and legislative bodies throughout the country. Almost without exception, the reports from these conferences and

studies conclude that increasing numbers of violent acts against persons and property are occurring on school grounds, in school buildings and classrooms, both during and after school hours. The preliminary report of Senator Birch Bayh's Subcommittee on Juvenile Delinquency stated in its opening pages that:

Our schools are experiencing serious crimes of a felonious nature including brutal assaults on teachers and students, as well as rapes, extortions, burglaries, thefts and an unprecedented wave of wanton destruction and vandalism. Moreover, our preliminary study of the situation has produced compelling evidence that this level of violence and vandalism is reaching crisis proportions which seriously threaten the ability of our educational system to carry out its primary function (23).

Attempts to pinpoint the causes of disruption in the schools have unearthed widely divergent views. A survey of school disruption reported by Stephen K. Bailey in 1970 (24), investigated teacher boycotts, student boycotts, arson, property damage, rioting, and student-teacher physical confrontations, among other incidents. Bailey found that while disruption rates were higher among integrated high schools than among predominantly black or white high schools, they were lowest of all among integrated high schools which also had integrated faculties. Bailey hypothesized that student disruptions are provoked by a "protest-prompting climate" which exists outside the schools themselves. Kenniston proposed a similar hypothesis (25). *Education U.S.A.*, in a special report on "The Discipline Crisis in the School" (26), cited reasons for student violence ranging from teacher insensitivity, inconsistent discipline, strikes, school size, and permissive parents to lack of respect for authority, youth alienation, and an increase in the compulsory attendance age.

A few reports have attempted to determine what schools can do and are doing about the incidence of violence and vandalism. McBartland and McDill's study on crime in the schools (27) found that school responsiveness can and does affect the number of student offenses in schools. They found that negative school responses, as reflected in low marks, correlated with a high incidence of student offenses; that school size correlates significantly with student offenses; and that student access (as determined by degree of student participation in school government and the amount of student choice in educational activities) relates to the number and types of offenses committed by students. While this study examined only a few indices in the area of school response to student discipline, it does indicate that school personnel have some measure of control over safety in their schools and that certain reforms could be helpful in improving school responsiveness.

The Children's Defense Fund has recently published two studies which deal with the issue of school response to student discipline (28). These studies found that "while violence in the schools is feared by many school personnel, parents and children, the

stereotypic image of hordes of incorrigible children wrecking havoc on entire schools is not borne out by the findings" (29). The reports also decry the use of exclusion through suspension or expulsion as a punishment for all sorts of student "offenses" ranging from refusal to agree to special education placement to refusal to take medicinal sedatives. The Children's Defense Fund also found in its surveys that most suspensions (63.4%) were for nonviolent, nondangerous offenses such as truancy, missing classes, smoking, dress code violations, and other such actions.

Although it is clear that violence, vandalism, student suspensions and expulsions represent major problem areas in schools today, it is also clear that the incidence and severity of these problems vary across school districts. Moreover, despite the public image of schools as fortresses, with teachers, students and administrators operating in a climate of fear and helplessness, the reality is much more complex. There are schools and school systems which have addressed with great skill the problems of disruption, violence, and vandalism, as well as the development of educational alternatives for students. Programs and policies designed locally have in some cases reduced or eliminated many of the problems.

In Philadelphia, for example, over 90 alternative programs have been established to provide educational options for 11,000 students whose needs were not being met through the regular educational offerings. These students range from poor achievers and dropouts to students with exceptional ability. The philosophy of program administrators is that every child should have an alternative to existing traditional school programs should they exhibit a need or a desire.

Evaluations of these programs have shown that disruptive incidents, absenteeism, suspensions and expulsions for students in such programs is considerably lower than the rate among the general population. Administrators feel that smaller school size, lower pupil-teacher ratios, and increased participation in decision making by teachers and students contribute to this success.

Philadelphia is certainly not alone in its approach to flexible, more individualized programming within the academic environment (30). Many urban school districts have incorporated in their approach to academic programs the realization that suspensions and expulsions are not the most effective remedies for dealing with difficult students. Alternatives to exclusion have been devised which utilize alternative programs, interagency counseling and referral services, and in-school suspensions, thereby allowing school districts to address student needs more constructively and appropriately. Such a policy instituted in Dade County, Florida, reduced the number of suspensions in 1972-73 by 32% and the number of expulsions by 15%. In the following year, the number of suspensions dropped another 41% while the number of expulsions decreased 83%. By 1974-75, there were no expulsions from the Dade County

Schools. This dramatic decrease was directly attributable to consistent implementation of board of education policies which emphasize due process on one hand and a wide variety of alternatives to suspension and expulsion on the other (31).

Improving Productivity

While there is certainly sufficient evidence to indicate that urban schools can be effective in providing successful educational programs to address a wide variety of students' needs, there are numerous obstacles to funding and maintaining such programs in an economy that forces budget cuts of increasingly more serious proportions each year. The necessity of allocating scarce resources without undermining the quality and extent of educational offerings also poses challenges in the development of performance accountability.

It is important that administrators on all levels be aware not only of how school funds are allocated and spent, but also of how effectively they are utilized and how productive are the results. One of the measures by which administrators—both central office and in the field—have begun to be judged is in regard to their efficiency and efficacy in managing fiscal and other school resources (such as personnel) to produce optimum results in the development and maintenance of sound educational policies and programs. As Cohn and Millman have noted:

There is increasing awareness of the need to apply rigorous management techniques to assist education decision makers in allocating scarce resources. The need for greater educational productivity has been placed into a sharper focus by the fiscal problems confronting education. . . . When costs increase but productivity remains essentially constant, costs per unit of output must increase, and therefore schools must seek increased public support (32).

This public support will continue to be difficult to obtain until school districts can provide concrete evidence that students are achieving well academically in a safe learning environment that encourages their optimum development. Accountability for program effectiveness is dependent upon the existence of clear-cut, well-defined performance objectives tied to specific incentives or outcomes which are appropriate to the desired result.

One example of how accountability might be accomplished is to isolate particular problems in particular schools, as some districts have done, and offer incentives for students, staff, and community to design and implement solutions which will reap concrete benefits for the school community. Where, for instance, vandalism is a serious concern, costing the district X number of dollars per year, that money or some portion thereof, might be pledged to a desired school project contingent upon the reduction or elimination of vandalism by members of the school community acting toward the solution of the problem. Other problems can be addressed in a similar

fashion by adaptations of this type of performance accountability.

The type of school financial plan recently adopted by the State of Florida is one that would lend itself well to this system of accountability. The Florida plan operates so that each individual school—rather than the district as a whole—becomes a budget and an accounting center. "(Earnings are directed to, and spending is reported from, the school site, steps which may increase accountability. Districts are required by law to spend... the funds generated on the students and the programs earning the formula money...)" (33). The legislative intent of the Florida Education Finance Program was stated in the act as follows:

To guarantee to each student in the Florida public school system the availability of programs and services appropriate to his educational needs, which are substantially equal to those available to any similar student, notwithstanding geographic differences and varying local economic factors; and

To increase the authority and responsibility of districts for deciding matters of instructional organization and method, and to encourage district initiative in seeking more effective and efficient means of achieving the goals of the various problems... (34).

The act provides for cost accounting and reporting systems, management information and assessment systems, while companion acts provide for school advisory councils and annual reports of school progress.

School by school funding allocations can be coupled with the use of federal, state and local categorical funds which are directed at the solution of particular school problems. These can be used for the development and maintenance of programs designed to improve pupil achievement, school climate, staffing, or other specified needs within the school community.

Conclusion

That what is called the urban crisis affects schools and children should be obvious. It affects teachers, administrators, counselors, parents and local boards of education. The urban crisis affects everyone. It should also be obvious—although one is constantly amazed that it is not—that one cannot separate the schools from the other institutions in our society. The problems of crime, unemployment, weakening of the family structure, the lack of integrity and honesty in public and private life, all have profound implications for public education. But underlying all of the arguments about financing education, accountability and educational quality, desegregation and community participation is a more pernicious notion: that schooling is not a very effective vehicle for the correction of social inequities and for economic improvement. Therefore, the argument goes, our efforts should be concentrated on jobs, income and better

housing. To many, minorities and the poor included, this argument may be seductive, but it is as the mythological siren's song: alluring, enticing, but fraught with danger and ultimately self-destructive.

The choice is not between decent housing, jobs, adequate health care on the one hand, and quality education on the other. Americans need and have a right to expect all of these things within the limits of our economic ability and knowledge base. More important than all of these societal concerns, more important than diplomas, degrees, skills and the status associated with education is the cement which holds this fragile republic together in times of crisis and in times of peace and tranquility: an educated, informed and active citizenry. Minorities, especially the poor, depend more heavily than other groups upon public education for the acquisition of skills and knowledge. To deny adequate financial support for public schools, to accept mediocrity and inefficiency without fixing responsibility and demanding accountability, is to assign, perhaps permanently, millions of citizens—this nation's most important resource—to second-class participation in the political and economic life of their country. It is a price no one should seriously consider; it is a price we cannot afford.

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11. San Antonio Independent School District v. Rodriguez, 411 U.S. 1 (1973).

12. See, for example, Robinson v. Cahill, 62 N.J. 473, 303 A.2d 273 (1973); Caldwell v. Kansas (Civil No. 50616, Johnson County Dist. Ct., Aug. 30, 1972); Horton v. Meskill, 31 Conn. Sup. 377, 332 A.2d 813 (1974). State finance decisions are now pending on state constitutional grounds in Idaho, Massachusetts, and New York.

13. See, for example, the New Jersey Public School Education Act of 1975 (P.L. 1975, Chapter 212) which outlines the state's responsibility for ensuring the sufficiency of education provided throughout the state through the establishment of standards of performance as well as a funding structure which are compatible with the requirements of a "thorough and efficient system" of education.

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18. CAL. EDUC. CODE §7504 (West, 1971).

19. Bichrest v. School District of Philadelphia, 346 F. Supp. 249 (1972).

20. Although the case was dismissed on procedural grounds since the school board did not constitute a "person" within the meaning of 42 U.S.C. §1983, the court held that the complaint "sufficiently avers the deprivation of a constitutional right guaranteed . . . by the equal protection clause of the Fourteenth Amendment." *Id.*, at 253. This ruling left open the possibility that such a claim could be brought through a legal vehicle other than §1983.

21. See, for example, Abington School District v. Schempp, 374 U.S. 203, 242 (1962).

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CHAPTER II

URBANIZATION AND ITS IMPACT ON EDUCATION

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Urban life in many ways is significantly different from rural life. It would be expected, therefore, that such differences in styles of life would have equally different effects on the various institutions arising within these two human groupings. In this chapter, we shall endeavor to gain at least a general idea of the ways in which and extent to which urbanization affects one of society's most vital institutions—its public schools.

Perhaps a fruitful way to begin a discussion on the relationship between the relatively recent phenomenon of urbanization and the much older institution of public education is to identify and define the key terms involved in such a discussion. It is recognized, of course, that while words have a way of acquiring shades of meaning which vary with usage—particularly when the users are scattered over great distances—it is entirely possible and equally desirable to cut through these nuances and get down to basic meanings. In this necessarily general and brief discussion, it would seem that the following are key words and expressions: urban, rural, to urbanize, urbanization, and secular. While the last term might well seem out of place, its relevance shall soon be seen since it is almost universally used to distinguish the urban dweller's "world outlook" from that of his or her rural counterpart. Following are the few brief preliminary definitions.

Preliminary Definitions

URBAN: Of, relating to, characteristic of, or taking place in a city. This word comes almost directly from the Latin, *urbs*, which means "the city." Therefore, when one speaks of an urban area, an urban society, an urban culture, an urban school or, indeed, of an urban education, one is speaking of these institutions as either existing within a city or citylike setting or as having characteristics peculiar to such settings.

RURAL: Of, relating to, characteristic of, or taking place within an area that is primarily one of open land—a countryside. The term "rural"—like its counter term "urban"—comes from the Latin *ruralis*.

TO URBANIZE: Is to make citylike or to incorporate within a city—either politically or in ways of living, and sometimes in both ways. Thus, the more or less rural area surrounding a city may, over the years, become, in fact, extensions of that city even though many parts of this region remain politically

independent as smaller towns or cities. Nevertheless, the smaller towns or cities with the "parent" city form a human grouping continuum which we frequently call a metropolis or even a megalopolis—if two or more metropolises form an unbroken continuum.

URBANIZATION: The shifting of the population of a given political unit—be it a state, province, or nation—from the open lands of its rural regions to its densely populated urban centers.

SECULAR: Worldly; oriented toward the needs and pleasures of the flesh as opposed to concern for spiritual values and religious practices.

No doubt, as this discussion progresses, many other words will be encountered, the meanings of which might need clarifying, but those clarifications will be made when the need arises.

Urban Living Contrasted to Rural Living

Perhaps a more meaningful idea of the contrast between life in the nation's urban regions (*urbia*) and that in its rural areas (*ruralia*) can be grasped from a general, but by no means exhaustive, review of those conditions and traits that are most characteristic of the city and of urban dwellers. Sociologists report that people living in urban centers differ markedly from their rural counterparts in three basic ways: (1) the **AFFAIRS** of the urban society—by which is generally meant the basic ways that society earns its living and conducts its economy; (2) the **CUSTOMS** of the urban society—by which is most often meant the interpersonal relationships employed by the members of the group in their day-to-day living: speech, protocols for social intercourse; and (3) the **VALUES** of the urban society—by which is meant the world outlook of the group. Consider in brief each of those traits that distinguish the urban dweller from the rural.

Urban Affairs

Within urban areas, particularly in nations which are highly advanced in technology, the ways and means of earning a living are about as varied and complex as the human imagination and ingenuity flowing therefrom. This variety and its accompanying complexity undoubtedly stem from the industrial revolution that hit the world in the latter part of the 18th Century—first in England from whence it

spread rather quickly to other parts of the world. Neither time nor space will permit us to trace this cultural phenomenon and its effects upon the way man earned his bread and lived his life. Perhaps it will be sufficient for the purposes of this chapter merely to point out that the Industrial Revolution greatly changed the human life it touched. Whereas, before 1750, life throughout the world was largely of sparse populations living mostly on farms or small villages with farming being the chief and most important occupation, the Industrial Revolution greatly increased production both in agriculture and in industry. Indeed, it made industry on the *grand scale* possible. It was industry with its many jobs and businesses that drew people in ever-increasing numbers to central locations, giving rise to the large, industrial cities with their seemingly countless inhabitants and endless number, as well as variety, of jobs. Jobs provided money which could be used quickly and easily to satisfy all kinds of wants and needs which, in turn, generated still more kinds of jobs. And so, a kind of benevolent economic circle was established, creating, as it spun, an almost endless variety of businesses, entrepreneurs, and institutions—all providing employment, income, and needs in growing numbers and in increasing variety.

Unquestionably, the jobs spawned by the urban phenomenon of industrialization and business have had the effect of a giant magnet, drawing human beings by the thousands and millions from the rural regions of the nation to the cities. This magnetic pull, in spite of a new romantic yearn for the wide open spaces evidenced in the recent mass exodus of city dwellers to suburbia, does not appear to have abated.

How will these people make their living? The answer would seem to be obvious: in the same ways urban dwellers presently earn their living—as factory workers, as tradesmen and tradeswomen, as technologists, as government employees, as entertainers, as salespersons, as business men and women, as practitioners in the various professions, and as paraprofessionals in an almost endless variety of fields and endeavors.

Urban Customs

It is a matter of rather easy observation that urban dwellers differ from their rural counterparts in still a second significant way. This second area of difference is in their interpersonal relationships. However, unlike people in the rural sections of the nation, urban dwellers represent three different basic subcultures each of which has its own prescriptions for intragroup and intergroup living. The three subcultures are briefly described below: First, there are those of the "upper class" which in all probability is also affluent and has experienced several generations of wealth, position, and education. Their life styles are usually characterized by refinement in speech, in tastes, and in living in general, and, as such, have much in common with the life of the

affluent everywhere—whether in the cities or elsewhere. Second, there are those of the "middle class"—by far the majority of urban dwellers—whose range might be thought of as encompassing blue-collar workers through professions of almost every kind. Their customs, like their incomes, encompass a wide range. Finally, there are the poor people of the urban center—usually dwellers in the innercity. Most often this group will have had the least amount of formal education and will be either unemployed or underemployed. These three subcultural groups making up urban society, will, in summary, tend to exhibit the following general styles of living: The "upper class" will be, for the most part, affluent, urbane and well-versed in the social amenities, but tend toward aloofness; the "middle class" will tend to be orderly and disciplined in life styles, highly respectful of the law, and intensely committed to formal education as the key to the realization of the American Dream—that every child through hard work and a good education can, indeed, be successful and might even become President; the "lower class," because of disillusion bred in poverty and ghetto living, may tend to have little faith in the American Dream or in formal education. In its stead, there may be a kind of fatalism and a belief in every man for himself as the underlying "real" principle of life.

If things remembered from older generations, either from the "old country" or from rural life in America, are added to these three different approaches to interpersonal living, there is in our urban centers great cultural diversity. Not so in the rural areas—or perhaps more correctly said—not so much so. If there is one striking difference between rural culture and urban culture other than the great heterogeneity of the latter, it most certainly is the rural area's commitment to a kind of *folk culture* which stresses conformity with traditions and folkways.

City customs, then, are significantly different from rural customs. The former are heterogeneous, abrupt, sophisticated, and individual-oriented. Country customs, on the other hand, tend to be homogeneous, deliberate, open and simple, rather than sophisticated, and group-oriented.

Urban Values

City dwellers and those in outlying urban rings differ in still a third important way, urbanologists say, from people living in the country. Urbanites are said to be more secular in their world outlook than are their rural counterparts. While the validity of this position has yet to be scientifically demonstrated, it would seem that several forces operating in urban society and culture would tend to make them more materialistic, more pragmatic, indeed, more worldly in their outlook on life. For one thing, living in a rather densely populated society in which three rather distinct subcultures are in operation would, it seems, tend to foster a significant degree of skepti-

cism regarding truth and the good life. Certainly, living in the midst of poverty and of great wealth would tend to focus one's attention upon the material—not the spiritual.

For whatever reasons, the following summary of urban values in general may not be too far from accurate. City people tend to value and seek:

1. The utmost in material comforts—in food, in drink, in clothing, in shelter, and in transportation.
2. Sophisticated entertainment—in a variety of media and forms.
3. Anonymity and privacy—even at the expense of neighborliness and assistance to others in need.
4. Individuality—in the endeavor to be one's self.
5. Safety—to the point of avoiding almost all kinds of involvement in the affairs of others.

City people tend to be: less open, less trustful of strangers, more socio-cultural class conscious—in a word—more self-oriented.

The Crowded Society

Finally, a few words perhaps should be said about the closeness in which City people live and the effects of this closeness upon their lives. Kingsley Davis, in his chapter titled, "The Urbanization of the Human Population," points out that:

...not only have urban agglomerations [reached] a size never before attained, but [they] also have a high proportion of their population concentrated in such agglomerations. In 1960, for example, nearly 52 million Americans lived in only 16 urbanized areas. Together, these areas covered less land than one of the smaller counties of Arizona (1).

Obviously, this closeness has its advantages and disadvantages. While other chapters in this book will deal more generously with these, perhaps it would be somewhat remiss with respect to the background of understanding needed for this discussion on the impact of urbanization of education if these advantages and disadvantages were not given at least a cursory summary here.

A Brief Summary of Advantages in Urban Living

Living in an urban center—whether in the city proper, which is usually the core of that center, or in the ever-widening rings surrounding that core (suburbia)—has rather distinct advantages. Among these advantages certainly the following can rightly be numbered:

1. Increased opportunities for employment—employment means greater purchasing power which, in turn, results in increased revenues for urban governments. Increased revenues mean more and better public services in such vitally important areas as health care, sanitation, transportation,

police protection, education, recreational facilities, and a host of others.

2. Large populations—if most members of the population are adequately employed, a large population means more tax revenues. A heterogeneous population means a greater opportunity for cultural and subcultural exchange—hence human enrichment.
3. Individualism means greater opportunity for human fulfillment resulting from freedom to pursue personal interests and to develop individual talent. Thus, in the nation's urban centers, there is perhaps a greater likelihood that the conditions necessary for creativity in most of its forms—in the arts, in the sciences, and in technology—will exist.
4. Secularism, with its emphasis on the practical and the material, might well tend to promote pragmatic thinking in the endeavor to resolve problems. It is just such thinking that often is the springboard for inventions and sophisticated technology.

These are but a few of the many advantages of urban living; however, like all human inventions, urban living is not without its problems and disadvantages. Very possibly, each of the advantages cited above has its negative side. The list given below might well include some of these disadvantages:

1. As the urban region becomes more and more densely populated, unless there is a corresponding expansion in industry and business, jobs become less plentiful. Moreover, if the in-migrants are from the rural areas—as they frequently are—they are likely *not* to possess the technical and professional skills required in the upper employment echelons. Hence, these newcomers soon deplete the opportunities for unskilled labor and have no choice but to swell the ranks of the urban unemployed, creating as they do a greater need for public service, but providing few tax revenues for such services.
2. Heterogeneity in urban culture also has its drawbacks. While diversity in culture does, indeed, make for cultural enrichment, such differences can and often do make for social conflict.
3. Individualism in the extreme can lead to noninvolvement in both the body politic and body social. We have seen all too often tragic examples of such noninvolvement.
4. Secularism and pragmatism carried to an extreme can lead to a paucity of moral and spiritual values and to a kind of self-centeredness in which compassion and concern for the sufferings of others are absent.
5. Finally, the crowdedness of urban living presents its own grave problems. Experiments have been conducted with rats that soon overpopulated their living space. Serious mental and physical breakdowns have been observed in such colonies. While it is not at all reasonable to infer that similar tragic consequences occur with human beings in crowded conditions, it is clearly evident that serious impediments to humane living accrue. Among these impediments one might quickly cite pollution—of the air, of the water, of the very land itself with human waste of various kinds. Still another problem closely related to overcrowding is poor and inadequate housing. Poor or inadequate health services, inadequate transportation facilities, inadequate recreational facilities, overcrowded classrooms are still

other serious difficulties visited upon urban communities as they become more and more densely populated.

In short, urban living has not produced the "heavenly city." Indeed, according to Edward C. Banfield (2), who wrote a gripping account foretelling the nature and future of our urban crises, the American city of today and of tomorrow bids well to be an unheavenly dwelling place from which human kind will flee in increasing droves in an almost frantic effort to escape its problems and difficulties. Hars Blumenfeld (3), in an essay titled "The Modern Metropolis," sees the following critical problems: traffic congestion, water and air pollution resulting from the smoke from our factories, household wastes, detergents, and gasoline fumes.

Without in any way denying the validity of Blumenfeld's list, and at the risk of oversimplifying what is at best a highly complex phenomenon, perhaps it can be said that the underlying problem which urban communities face throughout the nation is fiscal inadequacy. This situation no doubt arises in each metropolitan center from a different set of variables, but, very possibly, whatever the combination of causes, the result is the same—insufficient funds to attack the problems facing it.

Possibly, the source of urban funds—the taxpayer, whether a corporate industry or a single individual—has reached its limit. It might well be that the salvation of the nation's urban areas lies not so much in larger gifts from the federal government so much as a smaller tax bite on the latter's part in order that current taxes or even fewer such taxes can be more equitably divided between the federal and local government.

Whatever the solution to the problem of inadequate urban funds, it is patently clear that this very problem has had a profound impact on the urban school. Throughout the urban regions across the nation, we find school district after school district—like city after city—faced with a financial crisis. Like the cities, also, school districts are finding that their main sources of revenue either are unable or unwilling to provide the needed funds through increased taxes. Even the suggestion that the various states themselves take on more of the burden of local school funding is not likely to be the solution to this problem for the revenues of the states themselves are derived through taxes. They simply cannot spend what they do not have; however, more prudently and realistically, they reassign their priorities. All of the above is said, not to any way argue against or for more state funding of public education, but to re-emphasize what appears to be a fact—that the bottom of the tax barrel might well have been reached and that, if so, the need now might be for a reallocation of the tax revenues between federal and local as well as state governments.

But fiscal inadequacy and instability are not problems unique to the urban schools. Rural schools, like almost every other national institution, are

hard-pressed for funds. There are, however, advantages as well as problems experienced by urban schools by virtue of their being urban. These collectively constitute the impact of urbanization upon them. Let us review briefly first the positive impact—the advantages.

Advantages of Urbanization on Education

1. More funds—the city, being far more densely populated than its rural counterpart, provides more taxes. Hence, the per pupil expenditure of urban schools is likely to be greater than that provided rural pupils.
2. Greater variety of educational offerings—the greater the pupil population, usually the greater the number of educational dollars and the greater the variety of educational needs and demands. Hence, the urban schools, which are usually much larger in pupil population, offer a far greater variety of high quality educational opportunities. This fact has been amply demonstrated and documented by such studies as that reported by James B. Conant in his *Shaping Educational Policy* (4).
3. Greater cultural exchange resulting from the greater heterogeneity of urban society and culture.
4. More educationally adequate school facilities and learning materials.
5. Shorter travel distance to and from school—probably even when busing is required.
6. Closer proximity to rich and varied cultural and higher education opportunities available in the urban region.
7. More opportunities for extracurricular activities and afterschool work opportunities.

Again, all is not "heavenly" in the urban school. Many of the advantages cited above have their disadvantages:

1. Poor and reluctant urbanites, though frequently willing to pass higher school taxes, often have little upon which they can be taxed. Thus, recently, school districts, one after the other, have either been unable to win over more affluent taxpayers or, if school taxes are passed, find the yield from such taxes inadequate to meet spiraling operation costs.
2. Heterogeneity in school offerings can make for imbalance in the educational product, with the result that instead of all children in a district receiving a common formal education, many spin off into specializations that widen the gap in knowledge and skill. Moreover, the larger the school, in order to make variety in educational offerings possible, the more impersonal the educational setting is likely to become. Thus, pupil identity with the school and its philosophy—particularly with regard to values, goals, purposes, and behavior styles—is less likely to occur.

To these and other disadvantages which might be shown as the "other side of the coin" of the advantages, we must add the following as problems that might not be unique in kind to the urban school, but are certainly unique in degree to these schools:

1. Desegregation Problems—the urban school in increasing numbers, both in the North and in the

South, is faced with the tremendously difficult task of integrating both its pupil population and staff. A measure of this difficulty might be grasped when one realizes that the public school is required to overcome *de facto* segregation and not to permit, under any guise, *de jure* segregation. The latter task is relatively easy—simply modify any school policy or regulation which requires the separation of learners or the assignment of staff on the basis of race, sex, national origin or religion. But, school districts have found that the enactment of laws or the change of policy will not in themselves bring about school integration. Experience has shown that many parents simply move out of the jurisdiction of the school district, attempting to overcome segregation through the reassignment of pupils. Significant numbers of teachers and other categories of school staffs, when reassigned for the purposes of staff balancing, might seek employment in districts having much smaller numbers of the ethnic groups involved.

These movements are beyond the control of the school district, a fact which has suggested to some that the remedy for school *de facto* desegregation is the dissolution of school boundaries within a given urban region. But this proposed remedy poses real and seemingly insurmountable difficulties. Among such difficulties might be included the following:

- how to dissolve such boundaries within the urban region when two or more states are involved.
- how to attract pupils of various ethnic backgrounds, particularly white pupils, to schools that will serve large numbers of black pupils.
- how to retain white and black staff when reassignments are made to single, opposite-race schools.

2. Still another problem area rather unique to urban schools is that related to the subcultural heterogeneity of its pupils. These subcultural differences post significant problems related to values, attitudes, and identification. All too often, youngsters from disadvantaged sociocultural backgrounds, both black and white, do not identify with the school. Rather, because of different subcultural values, customs, and lifestyles, these learners tend to view the school as a hostile environment to be met with equal hostility and from which one should escape as soon as possible. Too often, also, teachers and administrators react to such hostility with that of their own and so an almost impenetrable impasse is formed. Out of this impasse springs violence toward school property and toward both other pupils and school personnel. We shall see in other chapters of this document the tremendous cost in dollars such violence toward school property exacts.

Cultural heterogeneity taxes the urban schools' ingenuity to provide a challenging and motivating curriculum for so diverse a school population and tempts school planners to fall into the fallacy of equating race or ethnicity with varying capacities for learning.

Teachers all too often believe themselves ill-prepared to provide meaningful learning situations for so heterogeneous a group of learners and long for assignments to schools where such heterogeneity appears not to be so great.

These constitute but a general overview of the

effects urbanization has had on education in the United States. Although they are drawn in large and general terms, it is perhaps quite obvious that this impact is significant and is beyond the powers of the school districts by themselves to deal with. It is equally clear that if the school problems created by urbanization are to be resolved, significantly greater assistance from both state and federal governments must be brought to bear on the matter.

Now, the question arises as to the State of Missouri. To what extent is Missouri urbanized and is the process of urbanization abating?

To answer this question, we need only study recent demographics relating to Missouri. These state demographics tell us that the population of Missouri in 1974 was approximately 4,777,000. Of this number, the following proportions were found in the cities and counties indicated below:

City of St. Louis (not in St. Louis County)	534,000
St. Louis County	967,200
St. Charles County	109,600
Jackson County (including Kansas City)	647,900
Clay County	132,900
Cole County (including Jefferson City)	48,500
Boone County (including Columbia area)	86,400
Greene County (including Springfield area) . . .	168,200
Buchanan County (including St. Joseph area) .	86,300
	2,781,000

It is at once obvious that while all of the residents in the last four named counties do not live in what could be properly regarded as urban communities, within these nine counties and the City of St. Louis are urban centers in which perhaps a large number, if not the majority, of the county inhabitants live. Thus, it seems correct to conclude that most Missourians live in urban communities, perhaps as many as 58 to 60%. If these figures are reasonably accurate, Missouri is perhaps only slightly less urbanized than the nation as a whole.

As to whether the process of urbanization in Missouri is continuing or abating, a comparison of the 1974 estimates with the 1970 census figures would seem to indicate that urbanization is still in process inasmuch as movement from the rural to the urban centers in Missouri is continuing.

However, William Alouso, Director of the Center of Population Studies at Harvard University, took a different view at a symposium conducted in early June, 1977, at Washington University in St. Louis.

He pointed out that the movement in the 1970's has been "from the overcrowded metropolitan 'ant hills' back to small towns and rural America." According to him, this depopulation trend accelerated in the mid 1970's. Metropolitan St. Louis reached a low of 2 to 3 percent population increase.

Even so, the migration pattern is not at all clear. On one hand statistics seem to show that a higher percentage of nonmetropolitan residents are moving into metropolitan areas than are the other way around, but "more people in absolute numbers are

moving from metropolitan to nonmetropolitan areas."

It might well be that what we are experiencing is the usual phenomenon of *metropolitan explosion* in which the metropolis itself is becoming less the overcrowded, compacted area and more the wide expanse, embracing areas far beyond the mother city, with the people living within it having more space, but most, if not all of the same citylike modes of living, thinking, working, and playing.

In short, what Alouso sees as a "back to rurals" trend might well be that rural areas and small towns are becoming themselves parts and parcel of increasingly more numerous megalopolises which conceivably in the not too distant future might themselves form contiguous urban regions that extend for hundreds of miles and include numerous metropolitan cores or centers which once were single great cities.

If this reading of the signs is correct, the implications are obvious. They are, in summary, that Missouri's educational problems growing out of urbanization are going to continue and, in all probability, spread. The meaning and urgency of these implications seem inescapable.

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SECTION II

A SURVEY STUDY OF MISSOURI'S URBAN CENTERS AND SCHOOLS

CHAPTER III

THE URBAN CENTERS IN MISSOURI: A DEMOGRAPHIC REVIEW

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Paralleling national patterns, the population of Missouri and its five metropolitan areas is not growing as rapidly during the 1970's as in preceding decades. According to a recent U. S. Bureau of the Census estimate, the State of Missouri grew by 1.8% during the 1970-1975 period; however, the metropolitan area population grew by only 0.1%, an estimated 2,800 persons.

Most of Missouri's estimated population growth between 1970 and 1975 took place in the rural counties of southern and southwestern Missouri, where the population grew substantially as a result of growing recreation, retirement, and industrial development efforts. There was some growth in the newer, outlying suburban counties within the metropolitan areas, but the core counties declined in the St. Louis, Kansas City, and St. Joseph metropolitan areas.

The five Missouri metropolitan areas¹ as currently defined by the U. S. Bureau of Census contain fifteen counties: The Columbia metropolitan area consists of Boone County; the Missouri portion of the Kansas City metropolitan area is comprised of Cass, Clay, Jackson, Platte, and Ray Counties; the St. Joseph metropolitan area covers Andrew and Buchanan Counties; the Missouri portion of the St. Louis metropolitan area covers Franklin, Jefferson, St. Charles, and St. Louis Counties and the City of St. Louis; the Springfield metropolitan area is composed of Christian and Greene Counties.

The five Missouri metropolitan areas (as currently defined) grew in population by 12.1% during the 1960-70 decade. However, as noted before, the estimated rate of growth during the five years 1970-1975, was only 0.1%. (See Table 1.) As a result of the differential rate of growth between the metropolitan and nonmetropolitan portions of Missouri in the first five years of this decade, the metropolitan population

declined from 65.0% of the Missouri population in 1970 to an estimated 63.9% in 1975; this decline in the metropolitan portion of the population is likely to continue in the foreseeable future. Within the metropolitan areas, the core counties are likely to grow at a slower rate or even decline, as in St. Louis, while the outlying suburban and urban counties should grow faster than the metropolitan areas as a whole.

Looking at the recent growth patterns of the individual Missouri metropolitan areas, one finds a wide range of variation; the St. Louis metropolitan area lost population during the first five years of this decade, and the Kansas City and St. Joseph metropolitan area growth rate was less than 1% in this five-year period. The growth rate of the Columbia and Springfield metropolitan areas was about 10%; only the Springfield metropolitan area grew at a rate equal to its 1960-70 rate of growth.

The Missouri metropolitan areas differ significantly in population density per square mile. The average 1970 Missouri metropolitan density was 347 persons per square mile, ranging from lows of 118 persons per square mile in the Columbia and St. Joseph areas to 674 persons per square mile in the St. Louis area.

There is also significant variation in the major age groupings. In the five metropolitan areas taken together, one-third of the 1970 population was under 18. Slightly over half of the metropolitan area population was between 18 and 64, and one-tenth was over 65. The age distribution pattern for the Missouri metropolitan areas is quite similar to the age distribution for the state as a whole. The state as a whole, however, has a higher concentration of elderly than do the metropolitan areas. (A discussion of age composition and other population characteristics for each metropolitan area appears at the end of this chapter.)

Reflecting social and technological changes, Missouri's nonwhite population has become increasingly metropolitan during recent decades. While statewide only one person in nine was nonwhite in 1970, the

¹Such metropolitan areas are formally designated as Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas (SMSA) by the U. S. Bureau of the Census.

proportion was one of seven in Missouri metropolitan areas; this nonwhite metropolitan population is overwhelmingly concentrated in the Kansas City and St. Louis areas, and most particularly in the central cities of these areas. In 1970 one out of six persons in the St. Louis area and one out of seven in the Kansas City are nonwhite, but only one out of sixty in the Springfield area was nonwhite.

The highest concentrations (percentagewise) of poverty families were not in the metropolitan areas with large numbers of nonwhite families, but in the smaller, more rural metropolitan areas of St. Joseph and Springfield, where one out of every ten families was designated as a poverty family.

State-wide, one out of nine Missouri families (11.5%) had a poverty level income in 1969, while one out of thirteen families living in metropolitan areas (7.8%) was below the poverty level. (See Table 1.)

One out of seven persons (14.7%) in Missouri was below poverty level. State-wide, one out of four poverty-status persons (25.0%) was 65 or over, and one out of three (33.9%) was under 18. (See Table 2.)

In 1969, median family income for all Missouri families was \$8,914; median family income for metropolitan area families ranged from \$8,215 in the Springfield metropolitan area to \$10,809 in the St. Louis metropolitan area. (See Table 2.)

Per capita money income for Missouri residents increased 44.1%, from \$2,954 to \$4,254, between 1969 and 1974. For metropolitan area residents, per capita money income increased 43.7%, from \$3,298 to \$4,740 during the same period.

In 1974, St. Louis metropolitan area residents had an estimated per capita income of \$4,863, high for Missouri metropolitan areas; estimated per capita income for the Springfield metropolitan area was \$4,011.

According to a recent U. S. Bureau of the Census report, summarized in Table 14, Missouri experienced a negative net migration during the 1970-75 period; that is, more people moved out of the state than moved in. The Bureau of the Census estimates a state-wide loss of 30,000 (-0.6%) persons through migration. The Missouri metropolitan area experienced a much higher migration loss, 99,600 (-3.2%). On the other hand, the nonmetropolitan areas (particularly in the southern and southwestern parts of the state) benefited from a net migration gain of 67,000 persons (+4.1%).

Migration losses were substantial in two Missouri metropolitan areas (Kansas City and St. Louis) and marginal in the St. Joseph metropolitan area. On the other hand, the Columbia and Springfield metropolitan areas experienced sizable net in-migration. Within the metropolitan areas, core counties such as Buchanan, Jackson, and the City of St. Louis experienced net out-migration, as did St. Louis County, which was the only noncore metropolitan county to undergo net out-migration.

The scale of interstate, intermetropolitan area and intercounty migration is revealed in Table 5

which gives the characteristics and magnitudes for migrants (i.e., people who moved) between 1965 and 1970. For the state as a whole, 473,175 persons moved in and 432,209 moved out, providing Missouri with a net immigration of 40,966.

The net out-migration experienced by some metropolitan areas (St. Joseph and St. Louis) during this period continued into the early 1970's.

In 1970, 48.8% of Missouri residents were high school graduates and 9.0% were college graduates. Adult residents of the university-dominated Columbia metropolitan area were the highest in educational attainment; 68.2% were high school graduates and 27.2% possessed college degrees.

Two-thirds (67.5%) of the young Missouri adults (ages 18-24) were high school graduates in 1970; more than 80% of those in the Columbia and Springfield metropolitan areas were high school graduates, while only 63.5% of the St. Louis metropolitan area young adults had graduated. (See Table 6.)

Columbia Metropolitan Area

The Columbia Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area is the state's most rapidly growing metropolitan area. It is also the state's newest designated metropolitan area. A key factor in the area's growth between 1960 and 1970 was the University of Missouri. In the 1950 Census, college students were counted for the first time at the "place of study" rather than at the place of parent's residence. Because of the University's recent growth and the change in definition of residence, this metropolitan area more than doubled between 1960 and 1970. Its location on Interstate Highway 70 was also a factor.

Between 1970 and 1975 the Columbia area grew, but not nearly so fast as between 1960 and 1970. As noted before, Columbia, along with St. Joseph, has the lowest population density of Missouri's metropolitan area; it has the lowest percentage of persons under age 18 and over 65, and the highest percentage concentration of persons 18 to 64. It is below state and metropolitan area averages in percentage of nonwhite population, but has more poverty families percentagewise than all of the Missouri metropolitan areas combined. Resident births in the area grew slowly but steadily through the 50's, dipped in the mid-60's, but climbed again in 1970, only to fall sharply back by 1975. There are eight school districts within the metropolitan area.

Contributing to Columbia metropolitan area growth during the early years of the 70's was a sizable difference between births and deaths, reflecting a concentration of young persons in the area. This fact, together with a net in-migration rate of 4.2% (the second best among the metropolitan areas and slightly higher than the nonmetropolitan average net migration), helps to explain the early 1970's growth within the Columbia metropolitan area.

Kansas City Metropolitan Area

The greater Kansas City metropolitan area, as in the St. Louis area, extends across state lines, but only the Missouri portion is our primary focus here. Very significant for the Missouri portion of the Kansas City metropolitan area is the growing utilization of the Kansas portion as a place of residence for middle-class white families working in both Kansas Cities.

The Kansas City metropolitan area has grown steadily since 1940; however, according to latest census estimates, the Kansas City metropolitan area has now stabilized, growing by only 8,000 (less than 1%) between 1970 and 1975. Its population density is slightly below that of the state's metropolitan areas as a whole.

Its age composition is similar to that of the state and the state's metropolitan areas except that Kansas City does have a considerably higher concentration of elderly. The area has one of the two largest concentrations of nonwhite metropolitan populations; the Kansas City area's 13.8% nonwhite is exceeded only by the St. Louis area's 17.0%. Its nonwhite and poverty families percentages are slightly lower than the state metropolitan areas as a whole.

The post war birth pattern of Kansas City is rather typical, births growing rapidly from 1950 to 1960 and declining after that so that by 1975 resident births were less than in 1950. (The maximum number of resident births occurred in 1960.)

The Kansas City metropolitan area contains 39 school districts, second only to the St. Louis metropolitan area number. Between 1970 and 1975 the natural increase for the Kansas City metropolitan area was 32,700, but the metropolitan area's growth was cut to 8,200 by an out-migration of 24,500 (-2.8% net migration rate).

St. Joseph Metropolitan Area

The growth of the St. Joseph metropolitan area is erratic. Its 1975 population is slightly higher than that in 1970, but about 10,000 less than that in 1940. The St. Joseph Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area has recently been expanded to include Andrew County, DeKalb County, to the northeast, and Clinton County, to the east, have grown considerably during the past five years and might be added to the St. Joseph Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area or Kansas City Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area after the 1980 census. Key factors in growth in this area are the Kansas City International Airport and Interstate Highway 29.

St. Joseph has grown slightly during the early 70's; this is a change from its 2.8% decline during the 1960's. Its population density is tied with Columbia for the lowest in the state, reflecting its large rural hinterland. The area's age composition is more like that of out-state Missouri than any of the other metropolitan areas, slightly lower than the total for

metropolitan areas of the number of children under 18, but the highest of any metropolitan area in the concentration of aged population. Its nonwhite percentage is very low (only the Springfield metropolitan area is lower). Its proportion of poverty families is about that of the state as a whole, and higher than that of Missouri metropolitan areas overall.

While resident births in the St. Joseph metropolitan area grew slightly between 1960 and 1970, they began to decline by 1965, and now they are less than 75% of the 1950 births; the maximum number of births occurred in 1962.

Eight school districts serve the St. Joseph metropolitan area. St. Joseph had a modest natural increase (excess of births over deaths) of 1,100 during the first five years of this decade, offsetting a slight negative net migration of 100 persons.

St. Louis Metropolitan Area

During the 1960's the St. Louis Metropolitan area grew by 12.9%, and was the largest and most densely populated metropolitan area in the state. Its 674 people per square mile in 1970 was roughly twice the average for the metropolitan areas of Missouri as a whole, and ten times the average of the state as a whole. It was also more than twice as densely populated as any other single metropolitan area in the state. The population, however, is unevenly distributed; the density is greatest in the south side of the City of St. Louis while there is less crowding in the city's north side and in the suburban areas. The age composition of its population was quite similar to that of the state's metropolitan area total.

In 1970, the St. Louis metropolitan area had the highest metropolitan area concentration of children under 18, reflecting the large number of births in white suburban areas.

The St. Louis metropolitan area has the highest percentage of nonwhites, 17%, one out of six persons; about three-fourths of these nonwhites live in the City of St. Louis. The rather low percentage of poverty families is a reflection of the very large number of working middle and upper-middle class families in the metropolitan area. This figure, however, masks the intensive poverty concentrations in the City's north side.

Resident births in the City of St. Louis grew at a modest rate between 1950 and 1960, but had declined by 1970 back to the 1950 level, and have continued to drop since 1970. The 1977 births in the St. Louis metropolitan area should be about one-half of the maximum number of births in the metropolitan area (41,303) which occurred in 1957, which was also the peak year for births in the United States.

There are currently 52 school districts in the area, more than 40% of all the state's metropolitan areas school districts. While there is only one school district for the City of St. Louis, there are 24 districts currently in St. Louis County. Most of the estimated net out-migration of the State of Missouri during the

first years of the 70's took place in the St. Louis metropolitan area which accounted for 89,000 of the state's 97,000 net out-migration.

Springfield Metropolitan Area

The Springfield metropolitan area has almost doubled in the past 35 years; it has increased 50% since 1950. Part of the substantial growth between 1960 and 1970 was due to the inclusion of Southwest Missouri State University students in the 1970 Census count. But Springfield, which is the core city of an increasingly attractive southwestern Missouri resort, recreation, and retirement center has also grown substantially because of in-migration and natural increase. Its rate of growth of about 12% between '70 and '75 is slightly higher than its rate of growth during the 1960's.

Population density in this area is rather low, reflecting much of the rural nature of the metropolitan area, particularly in Christian County which was added to the Springfield Metropolitan Statistical Area after 1970. The area has a low proportion of

population under age 18. It has an average concentration of aged and its concentration of people between the ages of 18-64, percentagewise, is second only in magnitude to that of Columbia, another university center.

The nonwhite percentage is very low. The area has the highest percent of poverty families of any metropolitan area in the state. Its resident birth patterns are erratic—declining in the early 50's, but increasing in the last years of that decade, declining to 1965, increasing to 1970, and declining again in the early 70's. Its maximum number of resident births occurred in 1971, the latest for any metropolitan area in the state. This metropolitan area is served by 15 public school districts.

Together with its substantial natural increase of 6,000, the Springfield metropolitan area grew because of a net in-migration of 13,000 persons, the largest by far of any metropolitan area in the state. This net in-migration rate of about 8% is twice as large as that for the nonmetropolitan area of the state, and much different from the -3% pattern for the state's metropolitan areas.

TABLE 1
SELECTED POPULATION CHARACTERISTICS,
MISSOURI METROPOLITAN AREAS
(As Defined in 1975)

Population	Missouri Total	Missouri Metropolitan Total	Columbia SMSA	Kansas City SMSA (Mo. Portion)	St. Joseph SMSA	St. Louis SMSA (Mo. Portion)	Springfield SMSA Total
1975	4,763,000	3,044,800	88,200	875,200	99,700	1,794,400	187,300
1970	4,676,401	3,041,707	80,911	867,008	98,828	1,826,907	168,053
1960	4,319,813	2,673,732	36,650	779,333	101,643	1,617,471	138,635
1950	3,954,653	2,260,850	31,974	636,485	108,053	1,367,102	117,235
1940	3,784,664	1,971,516	18,399	560,225	107,082	1,181,731	104,079
% Change							
1970-75	1.8	0.1	9.0	0.9	0.9	-1.8	11.5
1960-70	8.3	12.1	46.6	10.1	-2.8	12.9	21.2
Population Density per Square Mile (1970)	68	347	118	264	118	674	135
% Under 18	33.2	34.3	27.5	34.0	32.2	35.1	30.8
% 18-64	54.8	55.5	65.3	51.5	52.9	54.8	57.7
% 65 + over (1970)	12.0	10.2	7.2	14.5	14.9	10.0	11.5
% Nonwhite	10.7	14.5	6.1	13.8	2.8	17.0	1.7
% Poverty Families (1970)	11.5	7.8	8.8	7.4	10.1	7.6	11.2
Resident Births							
1975	68,442	43,685	1,125	12,898	1,447	25,474	2,741
1970	80,707	55,650	1,609	16,521	1,642	32,800	3,078
1965	81,216	56,936	1,308	16,485	1,888	34,692	2,563
1960	97,723	66,488	1,411	19,685	2,166	40,306	2,920
1955	93,797	62,002	1,021	17,993	2,048	38,456	2,484
1950	85,704	51,854	984	14,245	2,040	32,055	2,566
Maximum No. Births (Year)	98,537 (1959)	66,858 (1959)	1,609 (1970)	19,685 (1960)	2,176 (1962)	41,303 (1957)	3,095 (1971)
School Districts (1976)	563	122	8	39	8	52	15

TABLE 2
MEDIAN AND MEAN INCOME, MISSOURI METROPOLITAN AREAS, 1969

Metropolitan Area	Median Income			Mean Income			% of Persons in Poverty	Poverty Status		
	Families & Unrelated	Families	Unrelated Individuals	Families & Unrelated	Families	Unrelated Individuals		% of Poverty Persons 65 & Over	Persons 18 & Under	% of Families in Poverty
Missouri Total	N.A.	\$ 8,914	\$2,072	N.A.	\$10,236	\$3,475	14.7%	25.0	33.9	11.5
Columbia SMSA	\$3,556	\$ 9,605	\$1,302	\$ 6,230	\$10,990	\$2,116	14.6%	17.0	58.6	8.7
Kansas City SMSA	8,324	10,242	3,214	9,404	11,364	4,332	10.3%	22.9	42.5	7.3
St. Joseph SMSA	6,624	8,379	2,025	7,652	9,302	3,246	13.4%	32.0	35.6	9.5
St. Louis SMSA*	8,854	10,809	2,990	10,343	12,463	4,361	10.5%	21.2	38.4	7.6
Springfield	6,052	8,215	1,699	7,224	9,310	2,640	14.5%	25.3	65.2	10.3

Note: Data for Metropolitan Areas as defined in 1970

N.A. = NOT AVAILABLE

*MISSOURI PORTION ONLY

TABLE 3
POPULATION AND PER CAPITA INCOME
METROPOLITAN AREAS, SELECTED YEARS

Area	July 1 1975	Population July 1 1973 (Revised)	April 1 1970 (Census)	Change 1970 to 1975		Estimated Per Capita Money Income			
				Number	Percent	1974	1972 (Revised)	1969	Percent Change 1969 to 1974
Missouri Total	4,769,816	4,764,634	4,677,623	92,193	2.0	\$4,254	\$3,589	\$2,952	44.1
Columbia S.M.S.A.	87,230	86,025	80,935	6,295	7.8	4,254	3,583	2,963	43.6
Kansas City S.M.S.A.*	874,214	883,150	867,008	7,206	0.8	4,788	4,065	3,309	44.7
St. Joseph S.M.S.A.	99,682	100,026	98,828	854	0.9	3,933	3,292	2,707	45.3
St. Louis S.M.S.A.*	1,787,377	1,810,615	1,867,236	-79,859	-4.3	4,863	4,090	3,381	43.8
Springfield S.M.S.A.	187,532	182,909	163,053	24,479	15.0	4,011	3,372	2,815	42.5
Metro. Total	3,036,035	3,062,725	3,077,060	-41,025	-1.3	\$4,740	\$3,999	\$3,298	43.7
Nonmetro. Total	1,733,781	1,701,909	1,600,563	133,218	8.3	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.

*Missouri Portion Only

N.A. = Not Available

TABLE 4
ESTIMATES OF THE POPULATION OF METROPOLITAN AREAS AND THEIR COMPONENT COUNTIES:
MISSOURI, July 1, 1974 and 1975
(SMSA Totals Rounded Independently of County Numbers)

Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area and County	July 1, '75 Provisional	July 1, 1974	April 1, '70 (Census)	Change, 1970 to 1975		Components of Change 1970 to 1975 ¹			
				Number	Percent	Births	Deaths	Net Migration Number	Percent
Columbia, Mo.	88,200	87,800	80,935	7,300	9.0	6,700	2,800	3,400	4.2
Kansas City, Mo.-Kan. (Mo. Portion)	875,200	879,400	867,008	8,200	0.9	75,500	42,800	-24,500	-2.8
St. Joseph, Mo.	99,700	99,300	98,828	900	0.9	7,900	6,800	- 100	-0.1
St. Louis, Mo.-Ill. (Mo. Portion)	1,794,400	1,804,100	1,827,236	-32,900	-1.8	149,400	93,700	-88,600	-4.8
Springfield, Mo.	187,300	185,900	168,053	19,300	11.5	15,200	9,100	13,200	7.9
Metropolitan	3,044,800	3,056,500	3,042,060	2,800	0.1	254,600	155,200	-96,600	-3.2
Nonmetropolitan	1,718,000	1,715,100	1,635,563	82,500	5.0	129,700	114,200	67,000	4.1
Missouri Total	4,763,000	4,772,000	4,677,623	85,000	1.8	384,000	269,000	-30,000	-0.6

¹Births and deaths are based on reported vital statistics from April 1, 1970 to December 31, 1974, with extrapolations to June 30, 1975. Net migration is the difference between net change and natural increase.

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Current Population Reports*, Series P-25, #619, January, 1976, Tables 1 and 2.

TABLE 5
GROSS MIGRATION, BY SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS, FOR STANDARD METROPOLITAN
STATISTICAL AREAS, MISSOURI, 1965-1970

		Sex			Race		Age in 1970						
		Total**	Male	Female	White	Black	Under 15 Years	15 to 19 Years	20 to 24 Years	25 to 29 Years	30 to 44 Years	45 to 64 Years	65 Years and Over
Missouri State													
Net Migrants		40966	23217	17749	34276	3961	10658	8389	1904	6985	9193	4359	-522
In-Migrants		473175	247374	225801	434368	33356	108513	51706	79741	67363	94639	50774	20439
Out-Migrants		432209	224157	208052	400092	29395	97855	43317	77837	60378	85446	46415	20961
Columbia	Net	12970	5786	7184	12386	279	193	6779	6743	-1800	404	645	6
SMSA	In-M	33887	16152	17735	32510	791	4136	7749	11310	4050	4245	1814	583
	Out-M	20917	10366	10551	20124	521	3943	970	4567	5850	3841	1169	577
Kansas City	Net	2234	-884	3118	-2000	3989	-1353	-2367	5398	5564	-1725	-1844	-1439
SMSA - Mo*	In-M	168915	82879	86036	154695	13072	38970	14054	28563	25720	33877	19380	8351
	Out-M	166681	83763	82918	156695	9083	40323	16421	23165	20156	35602	21224	9790
St. Joseph	Net	-1366	-841	-525	-1115	-303	724	-376	-1440	160	237	-452	-219
SMSA	In-M	14687	7021	7666	14308	320	4000	1440	1710	1867	2833	1866	971
	Out-M	16053	7862	8191	15423	623	3276	1816	3150	1707	2596	2318	1190
St. Louis	Net	-3095	-4476	1381	-6678	2275	759	-6114	-2899	9479	2614	-3419	-3542
SMSA - Mo*	In-M	358841	174192	184649	314744	41430	85391	29540	48631	53523	77051	44444	20261
	Out-M	361936	178668	183268	321422	39155	84632	35654	51530	44044	74410	47863	23803
Springfield	Net	10440	4475	5965	10136	165	1516	2911	2153	381	1440	1445	594
SMSA	In-M	41859	20316	21543	41093	546	8608	5974	7641	5024	7352	5074	2186
	Out-M	31419	15841	15578	30957	381	7092	3063	5488	4643	5912	3629	1592
Metropolitan	Net	21183	4060	17123	12729	6405	1839	833	9955	13784	2997	-3625	-4600
Total	In-M	618189	300560	317629	557350	56159	141105	58757	97855	90184	125358	72578	32352
	Out-M	597006	296500	300506	544621	49754	139266	57924	87900	76400	122361	76203	36952

Note: Data for Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas as defined in 1975.

*MISSOURI PORTION ONLY

**Includes intercounty migration within the same metropolitan area.

TABLE 6
EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT, MISSOURI METROPOLITAN AREAS, 1970

Area	Median School Years Completed (Persons 25 & over)			% High School Graduates (Persons 25 & over)	% College Graduates	% High School Graduates (Persons 18-24)
	Total	Male	Female			
Missouri Total	11.8	11.7	11.8	48.8		67.5
Columbia - SMSA	12.7	12.8	12.6	68.2	27.2	81.9
Kansas City - Mo. SMSA*	12.2	12.2	12.2	58.1	9.6	67.6
St. Joseph (SMSA)	12.0	12.0	12.0	50.3	6.4	69.0
St. Louis - Mo. SMSA*	11.8	12.0	11.7	48.9	11.0	63.5
Springfield - SMSA	12.2	12.3	12.2	58.4	9.8	80.0

Note: Data for Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas as defined in 1970.

*MISSOURI PORTION ONLY

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS

PARTS I, II, AND III OF THE SCHOOL DISTRICT QUESTIONNAIRE

As noted in Chapter I of this document, *urban* is defined as embracing far more than cities and includes the suburban and even exurban areas surrounding cities, forming metropolises or even megalopolises. In the State of Missouri two metropolises can be readily identified—Kansas City and St. Louis. At present, perhaps no megalopolis has yet emerged. For purposes more of research feasibility than of principle, the exurban areas of St. Charles and Jefferson Counties were not included in the Committee's study.

Originally, it was the Committee's intention to base this report solely on data generated by two research instruments—one to be sent to the chief administrative officials of the municipalities comprising Missouri's five major urban centers, and the other to be sent to the chief administrative officers of the urban metropolitan school districts. While the Committee recognized early the desirability of collecting data directly from subpopulations within these two populations, such as urban students, urban teachers, urban school building administrators, and urban parents as well as persons in other urban institutions, it became increasingly clear that such a wide subpopulation sampling was neither fiscally feasible nor technically practical. The Committee, then, used two data sources—school district officials and municipal leaders.

Early in the planning of the survey, it became clear that distributing the municipality questionnaire to *each* city or town within the five major metropolitan centers was impractical. Therefore, the questionnaire was distributed only to the largest municipality of each of the five metropolitan centers: St. Louis, Kansas City, Springfield, St. Joseph, and Columbia. The responses from these cities are reported in other chapters as they relate to specific urban-metropolitan education issues.

Part I - School District Questionnaire

It should be noted that the data analysis presented in this chapter omits a few areas covered in Part I of the School District Questionnaire. This omission was found to be necessary because of an insufficient number of responses from the school districts. Therefore, in this chapter, results and data analyses are limited to the following basic areas:

- I. Attendance Centers
- II. Student and Staff Composition
- III. Student Enrollment
- IV. Teacher-Pupil Ratios
- V. Sources of Revenue

Each of these areas constitutes a main section of this chapter. It should be kept in mind that 31 school districts responded to the survey questionnaire. The summaries that follow reflect these responses.

In order to protect the anonymity of the reporting school districts, the Committee avoided giving data on any single school district. Rather, the Committee broke the major urban-metropolitan school districts into the following six area groupings identified by the code letters shown below:

Code	School Districts Included
A	The combined school districts of the Cities of St. Louis and Kansas City.
B	The combined school districts of St. Louis City and St. Louis County.
C	The combined school districts of Kansas City and Jackson County.
D	The school districts of St. Louis County alone.
E	The school districts of Jackson County alone.
F	The combined school districts of Springfield, St. Joseph, and Columbia.

For clarity and convenience, these responses are summarized as answers to specific questions presented in the survey instrument.

I. Attendance Centers

Question 1: To what extent was the change in the number of elementary school attendance centers in urban-metropolitan Missouri significant during the period 1973-74 to 1975-76?

Answer:

<u>School Year</u>	<u>Number of Missouri Urban-Metropolitan Elementary Schools</u>
1973-74	548
1974-75	542
1975-76	547

The change in the number of urban-metropolitan elementary school attendance centers in Missouri during the three-year period from 1973-74 through 1975-76 was insignificant.

Question 2: Was there an increase in the number of junior high schools in urban-metropolitan Missouri during this same three-year period?

Answer:

<u>School Year</u>	<u>Number of Missouri Urban-Metropolitan Junior High Schools</u>
1973-74	76
1974-75	77
1975-76	82

The number of junior high schools in urban-metropolitan Missouri *increased* approximately 7.9% during the same three-year period.

Question 3: Was there an increase in the number of senior high schools in urban-metropolitan Missouri during this same three-year period?

Answer:

<u>School Year</u>	<u>Number of Missouri Urban-Metropolitan Senior High Schools</u>
1973-74	74
1974-75	78
1975-76	83

The number of senior high schools in urban-metropolitan Missouri *increased* slightly over 12% during this same three-year period.

Thus, it appears that the total number of schools in urban Missouri rose only 2% during the period 1973-74 to 1975-76.

Question 4: What was the ratio of elementary schools to: (a) junior high schools and (b) senior high schools in urban-metropolitan Missouri from 1973-74 to 1975-76?

Answers.

(a)	<u>Elementary to Junior High Schools</u>	
	<u>School Year</u>	<u>Ratio</u>
	1973-74	7 to 1
	1974-75	7 to 1
	1975-76	6.7 to 1
(b)	<u>Elementary to Senior High Schools</u>	
	<u>School Year</u>	<u>Ratio</u>
	1973-74	7 to 1
	1974-75	6.9 to 1
	1975-76	6.6 to 1

Question 5: What was the ratio of junior high schools to senior high schools in urban-metropolitan Missouri during these same three school years?

Answer: Junior high schools were in the following ratios to senior high schools during the same three-year period:

<u>School Year</u>	<u>Ratio</u>
1973-74	1 to 1
1974-75	1 to 1
1975-76	1 to 1

The number of elementary schools in urban-metropolitan Missouri in relation to the number of junior and senior high schools slightly decreased from 1973-74 to 1975-76.

Inferences from Data

The survey data seem to show clearly that there was a slight decrease in the number of urban-metropolitan elementary schools during 1973-74 through 1975-76; however, the absence of private school data leaves us unable to draw any conclusions either as to whether or not the elementary school population in urban-metropolitan Missouri declined slightly during the three-year period under study or as to whether or not a number of youngsters of elementary school age left the public schools and entered private and parochial schools or nonurban schools.

It is clear, however, from the data that the junior and senior high schools of urban Missouri grew in population; however, it is not known whether the growth was from in-migration or the upward move of the wave of an earlier "baby-boom."

In addition, it is equally clear that the overall number of schools in urban-metropolitan Missouri increased—ever so slightly—but increase they did during 1973-74 and 1975-76—and did so at levels calling for more expensive plants, equipment, and materials.

II. Student and Staff Composition

Of central importance are the questions raised below relative to the racial composition of the student body in Missouri's urban-metropolitan schools and relative also to the racial/ethnic and sexual composition of the staffs of these schools. First, consider the student racial composition of these school districts.

Question 1: What was the racial composition of the public schools in the urban-metropolitan schools of Missouri, taken as a whole, during school year 1975-76?

Answer: According to responses from the urban-metropolitan school districts, approximately 14% of the total student population was nonwhite in 1975-76.

Question 2: What were the percentages of nonwhites in the student populations: (a) of metropolitan St. Louis and (b) of metropolitan Kansas City in 1975-76?

Answers:

(a) In metropolitan St. Louis, which includes both the City of St. Louis and surrounding St. Louis County (excluding, for the purposes of this study, all other adjacent counties), 21% of the student population was nonwhite in 1975-76.

However, in the 23 school districts of St. Louis County in 1975-76, only 14% of the total public school population was nonwhite.

(b) In metropolitan Kansas City (which includes both Kansas City and Jackson County), 34% of the total public school population was nonwhite in 1975-76.

However, in Jackson County alone during that same school year, only 4% of the total public school population was nonwhite.

Question 3: In 1975-76, what was the percentage of nonwhites in the public school student population of the remaining urban-metropolitan centers of Missouri; that is, Springfield, St. Joseph, and Columbia combined?

Answer: In the remaining Missouri urban-metropolitan areas combined, 10% of the total public school population was nonwhite during 1975-76.

Conclusion

Obviously, during school year 1975-76, the greatest proportion of nonwhite students in Missouri's urban centers was concentrated in its two largest cities—St. Louis and Kansas City. It is interesting to note, however, that the percentage of nonwhite students in St. Louis County, while not nearly equalling the percentage of nonwhite students found in the City of St. Louis, more than quadrupled the percentage of nonwhite students in suburban Kansas City and more than doubled the percentage of nonwhite students in the remaining combined urban centers of the state.

Turn now to the racial/ethnic and sexual composition of the staffs of the school districts serving the five major urban-metropolitan centers of Missouri.

Question 4: What was the racial/ethnic composition of the staffs of all of Missouri's urban-metropolitan school districts combined during school year 1975-76?

Answer: In 1975-76, the following percentages of nonwhites were in the school district staffs of urban-metropolitan Missouri:

Administrators

25%

Teachers	22%
Other Professionals	28%
Noncertificated	
Instructional Personnel	33%
Clerical Staff	28%

Question 5: In Missouri's two largest cities—St. Louis and Kansas City—what percentages of the school districts' staffs were nonwhite?

Answers: (a) In St. Louis and Kansas City combined, the percentages of nonwhites on the staffs of the responding school districts were reported:

Administrators	53.9%
Teachers	53.7%
Other Professionals	56.0%
Noncertificated	
Instructional Personnel	58.0%
Clerical Staff	49.0%

However, in St. Louis County alone, the following percentages of nonwhite staff were reported:

Administrators	7%
Teachers	8%
Other Professionals	11%
Noncertificated	
Instructional Personnel	14%
Clerical Staff	14%

(b) In Kansas City and Jackson County combined, the percentages of nonwhite staff were reported:

Administrators	31%
Teachers	22%
Other Professionals	45%
Noncertificated	
Instructional Personnel	64%
Clerical Staff	30%

However, in Jackson County alone, the following percentages of nonwhite staff were reported:

Administrators	1%
Teachers	1%
Other Professionals	4%
Noncertificated	
Instructional Personnel	0%
Clerical Staff	2%

Question 6: What were the percentages of nonwhites on the staffs of the school districts in St. Louis and St. Louis County combined in 1975-76?

Answer: In St. Louis and St. Louis County, the following percentages of nonwhite staff were reported:

Administrators	26.6%
Teachers	26.4%
Other Professionals	28.0%
Noncertificated	
Instructional Personnel	24.0%
Clerical Staff	34.0%

Question 7: In 1975-76, what were the percentages of nonwhites on the staffs of the remaining urban-metropolitan school districts of Missouri (Springfield, St. Joseph, and Columbia)?

Answer: In the combined school districts of Springfield, St. Joseph, and Columbia, the following percentages of nonwhite staff were reported:

Administrators	4%
Teachers	4%
Other Professionals	4%
Noncertificated	
Instructional Personnel	15%
Clerical Staff	4%

Table 7 presents a summary of the data reported on the racial composition of the students and staffs of Missouri's five major urban-metropolitan centers.

Conclusion

Again, by far the majority of nonwhite staff members is to be found in the state's two large urban centers.

Table 7
Student and Staff Racial Composition
of the Urban-Metropolitan School Districts of Missouri in 1975-76
(Nonwhites)

	Students	STAFF				
		Admin.	Teacher	Other Prof.	Noncert. Inst.	Clerical
Total Urban Area (All 5 Centers)	14%	25%	22%	28%	33%	28%
Cities of St. Louis & Kansas City Combined (A)	69%	53.9%	53.7%	56%	58%	49%
St. Louis and St. Louis County Combined (B)	21%	26.6%	26.4%	28%	24%	34%
Kansas City and Jackson County Combined (C)	34%	31%	22%	45%	64%	30%
St. Louis County Alone (D)	14%	7%	8%	11%	14%	14%
Jackson County Alone (E)	4%	1%	1%	4%	0%	2%
Springfield, St. Joseph, & Columbia Combined (F)	10%	4%	4%	4%	15%	4%

Consider now the sexual makeup of the urban-metropolitan school districts' staffs. It should be noted that the school districts were not asked to report the racial/ethnic backgrounds of personnel grouped according to sex, but to report only the sex of the various staff groups.

Question 8: What percentages of the urban-metropolitan school districts' staffs of Missouri were female in 1975-76?

Answer: According to the reporting school districts, the following were the percentages of FEMALE representation on the school districts' staffs in urban-metropolitan Missouri in 1975-76:

Administrators	17.0%
Teachers	71.5%
Other Professionals	70.6%
Noncertificated	
Instructional Personnel	92.6%
Clerical Staff	56.5%

Question 9: What were the percentages of FEMALE representation on the staffs of school districts in the combined cities of St. Louis and Kansas City in 1975-76?

Answer: In the combined cities of St. Louis and Kansas City, females were represented on the staffs of the school districts in the following percentages:

Administrators	23.4%
----------------	-------

Teachers	75.7%
Other Professionals	77.4%
Noncertificated	
Instructional Personnel	92.7%
Clerical Staff	54.9%

Question 10: What were the percentages of FEMALE representation on the staffs of the school districts in St. Louis and St. Louis County combined in 1975-76?

Answer: In both the City of St. Louis and St. Louis County, females were represented on the staffs of the school districts in the following percentages:

Administrators	15.8%
Teachers	71.3%
Other Professionals	68.0%
Noncertificated	
Instructional Personnel	92.3%
Clerical Staff	48.2%

However, in St. Louis County alone, the female percentages of representation were the following:

Administrators	13.7%
Teachers	68.4%
Other Professionals	63.3%
Noncertificated	
Instructional Personnel	92.7%
Clerical Staff	55.0%

Question 11: What were the percentages of FEMALE representation on the staffs of the school districts in Kansas City and Jackson County in 1975-76?

Answer: In both Kansas City and Jackson County, females were represented on the staffs of the school districts in the following percentages:

Administrators	20.9%
Teachers	72.1%
Other Professionals	82.0%
Noncertificated	
Instructional Personnel	94.1%
Clerical Staff	65.8%

However, in Jackson County alone, the female percentages of representation were the following:

Administrators	8.5%
Teachers	71.0%
Other Professionals	81.7%
Noncertificated	
Instructional Personnel	96.3%
Clerical Staff	67.6%

Question 12: In 1975-76 what were the percentages of FEMALES on the staffs of the remaining urban-metropolitan school districts in Missouri (Springfield, St. Joseph, and Columbia)?

Answer: In the combined school districts of Springfield, St. Joseph, and Columbia, females were represented in the following percentages:

Administrators	15.4%
Teachers	71.2%
Other Professionals	70.9%
Noncertificated	
Instructional Personnel	91.2%
Clerical Staff	55.3%

Table 8 presents a summary of the data reported by urban-metropolitan school districts of Missouri relative to sex representation on their staffs.

Table 8
Percentages of Sex Representation in the Various Staff Categories
of the Urban-Metropolitan School Districts of Missouri in 1975-76

	Administration		Teachers		Other Prof.		Noncert. Inst.		Clerical	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Total Urban Area	83.0	17.0	28.5	71.5	29.4	70.6	7.4	92.6	43.5	56.5
Cities of St. Louis & Kansas City Combined (A)	76.6	23.4	24.3	75.7	22.6	77.4	7.3	92.7	45.1	54.9
St. Louis and St. Louis County Combined (B)	84.2	15.8	28.7	71.3	32.0	68.0	7.7	92.3	51.8	48.2
St. Louis County Alone (C)	86.3	13.7	31.6	68.4	36.7	63.3	7.3	92.7	45.0	55.0
Kansas City and Jackson County Combined (D)	79.1	20.9	27.9	72.1	18.0	82.0	5.9	94.1	34.2	65.8
Jackson County Alone (E)	91.5	8.5	29.0	71.0	18.3	81.7	3.7	96.3	32.4	67.6
Springfield, St. Joseph, & Columbia Combined (F)	84.6	15.4	28.8	71.2	29.1	70.9	8.8	91.2	44.7	55.3

Conclusion

From the summary chart presented in Table 8, it is clear that females constitute a relatively small proportion of the urban-metropolitan school district administrators in Missouri and appear in the largest numbers in the two largest cities. On the other hand, women are in by far the largest majority throughout urban-metropolitan Missouri in most of the remaining staff positions.

Now consider the area of student enrollment in Missouri's urban-metropolitan schools.

III. Student Enrollment

Four major questions were raised in the school district questionnaire relative to student enrollment in urban-metropolitan Missouri. Below are those questions and their answers as gleaned from the responses of most of the urban-metropolitan school districts.

Question 1: Did the elementary and secondary schools of urban-metropolitan Missouri gain or lose in student population during the period 1973-74 to 1975-76?

Answer: According to reports as summarized in the chart below, only the senior high schools of urban-metropolitan Missouri experienced a slight gain in student enrollment.

School Level	Percent of Gain or Loss In Student Enrollment From 1973-74 to 1975-76
Elementary Schools	-9.0%
Junior High Schools	-0.5%
Senior High Schools	+3.2%
Total Gain or Loss	-4.4%

Conclusion

Obviously, the slight gain in the senior high schools in urban-metropolitan Missouri was more than offset by the losses in student enrollment occurring in the elementary and junior high schools of these school districts. It should be noted that the loss at the elementary school level was almost three times that at the senior high school level. Thus, allowing for normal attrition which occurs as students move up the grade levels, it seems safe to predict that in the not-too-distant future, the senior high schools of these districts will experience probably as much as a 10% loss in student enrollment.

Question 2: How do the numbers of students enrolled in the urban-metropolitan schools in 1973-74 compare with those enrolled in these same schools in 1975-76?

Answer:

Table 9

Geographical Area	Enrollment in School Year 1973-74	Enrollment in School Year 1975-76	Percent of Gain(+) or Loss(-)
St. Louis and Kansas City Combined (A)	157,584	140,744	-10.7%
St. Louis and St. Louis County Combined (B)	259,103	250,934	- 3.2%
Kansas City and Jackson County Combined (C)	108,885	99,048	- 9.0%
St. Louis County Alone (D)	161,242	161,864	+ 0.4%
Jackson County Alone (E)	49,162	47,374	- 3.6%
Springfield, St. Joseph, & Columbia Combined (F)	72,989	71,527	- 2.0%
TOTALS (Nonduplicating)	440,977	421,509	- 4.4%

It would appear that between school years 1973-74 and 1975-76, only the school districts in St. Louis County escaped a loss in student enrollment and experienced a very slight gain. All of the other urban-metropolitan school districts experienced losses in student enrollment, with the two largest cities, St. Louis and Kansas City, experiencing the greatest loss—almost 11%.

Question 3: What specifically, were the changes in student enrollment at each of the school levels in urban-metropolitan Missouri from 1973-74 to 1975-76?

- Answers:
- (a) With respect to the urban-metropolitan elementary schools, the following specific changes in student enrollment were reported:
 - (1) There were 248,207 elementary school students (grades K through 6) enrolled in the fall of 1973-74 to attend classes in the 548 schools of urban-metropolitan Missouri.
 - (2) The number decreased to 239,192 in the fall of 1974-75 while the number of schools attended dropped from 548 to 542.
 - (3) By the fall of 1975-76, this number of urban-metropolitan elementary school students had dropped to 225,170 while the number of schools they attended had increased from 542 to 547.
 - (4) Thus, from 1973-74 to 1975-76, the decrease in the number of urban-metropolitan elementary school students was 23,037, a drop of approximately 9.3%.
 - (5) An analysis of the enrollment breakdown by geographical areas shows the following specific enrollment changes for the period:

Area A (St. Louis and Kansas City)

1973-74 Elementary Enrollment	101,798
1973-74 Elementary Schools	226
1975-76 Elementary Enrollment	86,088
1975-76 Elementary Schools	221

Losses or Gains

Enrollment: $101,798 - 86,088 = -15,710$ elementary students

Schools: $226 - 221 = -5$ elementary schools

Conclusion

During the period 1973-74 to 1975-76, Missouri's two largest cities lost approximately 15% of their elementary school students.

Area B (St. Louis and St. Louis County)

1973-74 Elementary Enrollment	149,667
1973-74 Elementary Schools	314
1975-76 Elementary Enrollment	136,352
1975-76 Elementary Schools	311

Losses or Gains

Enrollment: $149,667 - 136,352 = -13,315$ elementary students

Schools: $314 - 311 = -3$ elementary schools

Conclusion

Metropolitan St. Louis, excluding the counties of St. Charles and others, during the period 1973-74 to 1975-76, lost approximately 8.9% of its elementary school students.

Area C (Kansas City and Jackson County)

1973-74 Elementary Enrollment	59,554
1973-74 Elementary Schools	124
1975-76 Elementary Enrollment	51,584
1975-76 Elementary Schools	125

Losses or Gains

Enrollment: $59,554 - 51,584 = -7,970$ elementary students

Schools: $125 - 124 = +1$ elementary schools

Conclusion

The Kansas City Metropolitan Area experienced a loss of 13.4% of its elementary school students during the period 1973-74 to 1975-76.

Area D (St. Louis County Alone)

1973-74 Elementary Enrollment	82,066
1973-74 Elementary Schools	167
1975-76 Elementary Enrollment	78,051
1975-76 Elementary Schools	170

Losses or Gains

Enrollment: $82,066 - 78,051 = -4,015$ elementary students

Schools: $170 - 167 = +3$ elementary schools

Conclusion

St. Louis County alone experienced a loss of approximately 4.9% of its elementary school students during the period 1973-74 to 1975-76.

Area E (Jackson County Alone)

1973-74 Elementary Enrollment	25,357
1973-74 Elementary Schools	45
1975-76 Elementary Enrollment	23,797
1975-76 Elementary Schools	45

Losses or Gains

Enrollment: $25,357 - 23,797 = -1,560$ elementary students

Schools: $45 - 45 = 0$ gains or losses

Conclusion

Jackson County alone experienced a loss of some 6.2% of its elementary school students during the period 1973-74 to 1975-76.

Area F (The combined urban-metropolitan centers of Springfield, St. Joseph, and Columbia)

1973-74 Elementary Enrollment	37,858
1973-74 Elementary Schools	111
1975-76 Elementary Enrollment	37,234
1975-76 Elementary Schools	111

Losses or Gains

Enrollment: $37,858 - 37,234 = -624$ elementary students

Schools: $111 - 111 = 0$ gains or losses

Conclusion

The remaining three major urban centers of Missouri (Springfield, St. Joseph, and Columbia) experienced a loss of approximately 1.6% of their elementary school students during the period 1973-74 to 1975-76.

(Answer 3 continued)

(b) With respect to the urban-metropolitan junior high schools, the following specific changes in student enrollment took place during the period 1973-74 to 1975-76.

- (1) There were 72,958 junior high school students (generally grades 7 through 9) enrolled in the fall of school year 1973-74 to attend classes in 76 junior high schools in urban-metropolitan Missouri.
- (2) This number decreased to 72,578 by 1975-76 and the number of urban-metropolitan junior high schools *increased* to 82.
- (3) Thus, from 1973-74 to 1975-76, there was an overall decrease throughout urban-metropolitan Missouri of 380 junior high school students—approximately 0.5%.
- (4) An analysis of the urban-metropolitan junior high school enrollment breakdown by geographical areas shows the following specific enrollment changes for the period 1973-74 to 1975-76:

Area A (St. Louis and Kansas City)

1973-74 Junior High Enrollment	9,229
1973-74 Junior High Schools	9
1975-76 Junior High Enrollment	10,193
1975-76 Junior High Schools	13

Losses or Gains

Enrollment: $10,193 - 9,229 = +964$ junior high students

Schools: $13 - 9 = +4$ junior high schools

Conclusion

Missouri's two largest cities experienced a gain of approximately 10.4% in their junior high school students during the period 1973-74 to 1975-76.

Area B (St. Louis and St. Louis County)

1973-74 Junior High Enrollment	38,913
1973-74 Junior High Schools	37
1975-76 Junior High Enrollment	39,730
1975-76 Junior High Schools	42

Losses or Gains

Enrollment: $39,730 - 38,913 = +817$ junior high students

Schools: $42 - 37 = +5$ junior high schools

Conclusion

St. Louis and St. Louis County combined gained approximately 2.1% junior high school students during the period 1973-74 to 1975-76.

Area C (Kansas City and Jackson County)

1973-74 Junior High Enrollment	20,910
1973-74 Junior High Schools	18
1975-76 Junior High Enrollment	19,487
1975-76 Junior High Schools	18

Losses or Gains

Enrollment: $20,910 - 19,487 = -1,423$ junior high students

Schools: $18 - 18 = 0$ losses or gains

Conclusion

Metropolitan Kansas City lost approximately 6.8% of its junior high school students during the period 1973-74 to 1975-76.

Area D (St. Louis County Alone)

1973-74 Junior High Enrollment	38,049
1973-74 Junior High Schools	36
1975-76 Junior High Enrollment	36,795
1975-76 Junior High Schools	37

Losses or Gains

Enrollment: $38,049 - 36,795 = -1,254$ junior high students

Schools: $37 - 36 = +1$ junior high school

Conclusion

St. Louis County experienced a loss of approximately 3.3% of its junior high school students during the period 1973-74 to 1975-76.

Area E (Jackson County Alone)

1973-74 Junior High Enrollment	12,545
1973-74 Junior High Schools	10
1975-76 Junior High Enrollment	12,229
1975-76 Junior High Schools	10

Losses or Gains

Enrollment: $12,545 - 12,229 = -316$ junior high students

Schools: $10 - 10 = 0$ gains or losses

Conclusion

Jackson County experienced a loss of approximately 2.5% of its junior high school students during the period 1973-74 to 1975-76.

Area F (Springfield, St. Joseph, and Columbia)

1973-74 Junior High Enrollment	13,135
1973-74 Junior High Schools	21
1975-76 Junior High Enrollment	13,361
1975-76 Junior High Schools	22

Losses or Gains

Enrollment: $13,361 - 13,135 = +226$ junior high students

Schools: $22 - 21 = +1$ junior high school

Conclusion

The combined urban centers of Springfield, St. Joseph, and Columbia experienced during the period 1973-74 to 1975-76 a gain of approximately 17.2% in their junior high school students.

(Answer 3 continued)

(c) With respect to the urban-metropolitan senior high schools, the following specific changes in student enrollment took place during the period 1973-74 to 1975-76:

- (1) There were 119,812 senior high school students (generally grades 10 through 12) enrolled in the fall of school year 1973-74 to attend classes in 74 senior high schools in urban-metropolitan Missouri.

- (2) This number increased to 123,761 senior high school students in 1975-76 attending 83 senior high schools.
- (3) Thus, from 1973-74 to 1975-76, there was an overall increase throughout urban-metropolitan Missouri of 3,949 senior high school students—approximately 3.3%.
- (4) An analysis of the urban-metropolitan senior high school enrollment breakdown by geographical areas shows the following specific enrollment changes for the period 1973-74 to 1975-76:

Area A (St. Louis and Kansas City)

1973-74 Senior High Enrollment	46,557
1973-74 Senior High Schools	28
1975-76 Senior High Enrollment	44,463
1975-76 Senior High Schools	30

Losses or Gains

Enrollment: $46,557 - 44,463 = -2,094$ senior high students

Schools: $30 - 28 = +2$ senior high schools

Conclusion

Missouri's two largest cities combined experienced an approximate 4.5% loss in their senior high school student enrollment from 1973-74 to 1975-76.

Area B (St. Louis and St. Louis County)

1973-74 Senior High Enrollment	70,523
1973-74 Senior High Schools	40
1975-76 Senior High Enrollment	74,852
1975-76 Senior High Schools	46

Losses or Gains

Enrollment: $74,852 - 70,523 = +4,329$ senior high students

Schools: $46 - 40 = +6$ senior high schools

Conclusion

St. Louis and St. Louis County experienced an approximate 6.1% gain in senior high school students during the period 1973-74 to 1975-76.

Area C (Kansas City and Jackson County)

1973-74 Senior High Enrollment	28,421
1973-74 Senior High Schools	20
1975-76 Senior High Enrollment	27,977
1975-76 Senior High Schools	21

Losses or Gains

Enrollment: $28,421 - 27,977 = -444$ senior high students

Schools: $21 - 20 = +1$ senior high school

Conclusion

Kansas City and Jackson County combined experienced an approximate 1.6% loss in their senior high school student population during the period 1973-74 to 1975-76.

Area D (St. Louis County Alone)

1973-74 Senior High Enrollment	41,127
1973-74 Senior High Schools	24
1975-76 Senior High Enrollment	47,018
1975-76 Senior High Schools	30

Losses or Gains

Enrollment: $47,018 - 41,127 = +5,891$ senior high students

Schools: $30 - 24 = +6$ senior high schools

Conclusion

St. Louis County alone experienced an approximate 14.3% increase in its senior high school enrollment during the period 1973-74 to 1975-76.

Area E (Jackson County Alone)

1973-74 Senior High Enrollment	11,260
1973-74 Senior High Schools	8
1975-76 Senior High Enrollment	11,348
1975-76 Senior High Schools	7

Losses or Gains

Enrollment: $11,348 - 11,260 = +88$ senior high students

Schools: $8 - 7 = -1$ senior high school

Conclusion

Jackson County alone experienced a gain approximately 0.8% in its senior high school enrollment during the period 1973-74 to 1975-76.

Area F (Springfield, St. Joseph, and Columbia)

1973-74 Senior High Enrollment	20,868
1973-74 Senior High Schools	14
1975-76 Senior High Enrollment	20,932
1975-76 Senior High School	16

Losses or Gains

Enrollment: $20,932 - 20,868 = +64$ senior high students

Schools: $16 - 14 = +2$ senior high schools

Conclusion

The remaining Missouri urban centers of Springfield, St. Joseph, and Columbia combined experienced an approximate 0.3% gain in high school student enrollment during the period 1975-76.

IV. Teacher-Pupil Ratios

Table 10 following summarizes the data from the responding urban-metropolitan school districts of Missouri relative to their teacher-pupil ratios in 1975-76 of the elementary school level. Table 11 summarizes similar data for the same school year at the junior high school level. Table 12 presents a summary of teacher-pupil ratios throughout urban-metropolitan Missouri at the senior high school level for school year 1975-76.

Table 10
Teacher-Pupil Ratios in
Missouri Urban-Metropolitan Elementary Schools
By School Districts Areas For 1975-76

Geographical Area	TEACHER-PUPIL RATIOS			
	Area Low	Area High	Area Mean	Area Median
St. Louis and Kansas City Combined (A)	1 to 29	1 to 30	1 to 29	1 to 30
St. Louis and St. Louis County Combined (B)	1 to 18	1 to 30	1 to 22	1 to 20
Kansas City and Jackson County Combined (C)	1 to 22	1 to 29	1 to 25	1 to 25
St. Louis County Alone (D)	1 to 18	1 to 29	1 to 22	1 to 19
Jackson County Alone (E)	1 to 22	1 to 25	1 to 24	1 to 24
Springfield, St. Joseph, & Columbia Combined (F)	1 to 25	1 to 26	1 to 25	1 to 25
All Districts Combined	1 to 18	1 to 30	1 to 24	1 to 24

Table 11
Teacher-Pupil Ratios in
Missouri Urban-Metropolitan Junior High Schools
By School Districts Areas For 1975-76

Geographical Area	TEACHER-PUPIL RATIOS			
	Area Low	Area High	Area Mean	Area Median
St. Louis and Kansas City Combined (A)	Not Reported	Not Reported	1 to 27	1 to 27
St. Louis and St. Louis County Combined (B)	1 to 17	1 to 28	1 to 21	1 to 18
Kansas City and Jackson County Combined (C)	1 to 18	1 to 27	1 to 24	1 to 22
St. Louis County Alone (D)	1 to 17	1 to 28	1 to 21	1 to 19
Jackson County Alone (E)	1 to 18	1 to 27	1 to 24	1 to 24
Springfield, St. Joseph, & Columbia Combined (F)	1 to 15	1 to 26	1 to 23	1 to 24
All Urban Districts Combined	1 to 25	1 to 26	1 to 25	1 to 25

Table 12
Teacher-Pupil Ratios in
Missouri Urban-Metropolitan Senior High Schools
By School Districts Areas For 1975-76

Geographical Area	TEACHER-PUPIL RATIOS			
	Area Low	Area High	Area Mean	Area Median
St. Louis and Kansas City Combined (A)	1 to 26	1 to 29	1 to 27	1 to 27
St. Louis and St. Louis County Combined (B)	1 to 15	1 to 29	1 to 20	1 to 17
Kansas City and Jackson County Combined (C)	1 to 21	1 to 28	1 to 25	1 to 25
St. Louis County Alone (D)	1 to 16	1 to 29	1 to 20	1 to 17
Jackson County Alone (E)	1 to 21	1 to 28	1 to 24	1 to 24
Springfield, St. Joseph, & Columbia Combined (F)	1 to 16	1 to 28	1 to 24	1 to 25
All Districts Combined	1 to 16	1 to 29	1 to 22	1 to 21

Generalizations

From Tables 10, 11, and 12, it can be concluded that throughout the urban-metropolitan school districts of Missouri, the teacher-pupil ratio at the elementary school level centered around 1 to 29 in the state's two largest cities, around 1 to 24 in the two largest metropolitan centers, and around 1 to 19 in suburban St. Louis. In the smaller urban areas of Springfield, St. Joseph, and Columbia, the teacher-pupil ratio centered around 1 to 25 and approximated the average teacher-pupil ratio throughout the total urban-metropolitan area.

The last topic to be considered in this chapter is the sources of revenue for the state's urban-metropolitan schools.

V. Sources of Revenue

Perhaps the main question under this subheading is the following: What were the major sources of revenue for Missouri's urban-metropolitan school districts during the period 1973-74 to 1975-76? Table 13 provides data which, for all practical purposes, seem to answer this question for school year 1973-74. Table 14 provides data for school year 1974-75, and Table 15 provides similar data for school year 1975-76.

Table 13
Amounts and Main Sources of Revenue of
Missouri Urban-Metropolitan Schools
By School Districts Areas For 1973-74

Geographical Area	REVENUE SOURCES			
	Total Amount	Revenue from Local Sources	Revenue from State Funds	Revenue from Federal Government
St. Louis and Kansas City Combined (A)	\$176,294,976	(55.7%) \$ 98,174,704	(29.0%) \$ 51,190,544	(15.3%) \$26,929,728
St. Louis and St. Louis County Combined (B)	\$309,193,744	(63.5%) \$196,226,096	(29.0%) \$ 89,716,784	(7.5%) \$23,250,864
Kansas City and Jackson County Combined (C)	\$120,172,008	(56.7%) \$ 68,158,080	(33.1%) \$ 39,771,792	(10.2%) \$12,242,136
St. Louis County Alone (D)	\$204,139,413	(69.4%) \$141,613,680	(27.5%) \$ 56,145,328	(3.1%) \$ 6,380,405
Jackson County Alone (E)	\$ 48,931,361	(50.3%) \$ 24,595,792	(45.3%) \$ 22,152,704	(4.4%) \$ 2,182,865
Springfield, St. Joseph, & Columbia Combined (F)	\$ 70,597,981	(54.8%) \$ 28,648,656	(39.4%) \$ 27,839,344	(5.8%) \$ 4,109,981
All Urban Districts Combined	\$499,963,731	(60.6%) \$303,032,832	(31.5%) \$157,327,920	(7.9%) \$39,602,979

Table 14
Amounts and Main Sources of Revenue of
Missouri Urban-Metropolitan Schools
By School Districts Areas For 1974-75

Geographical Area	REVENUE SOURCES			
	Total Amount	Revenue from Local Sources	Revenue from State Funds	Revenue from Federal Government
St. Louis and Kansas City Combined (A)	\$186,706,416	(53.4%) \$ 99,631,968	(28.0%) \$ 52,258,320	(18.6%) \$34,816,128
St. Louis and St. Louis County Combined (B)	\$325,255,744	(62.1%) \$202,085,056	(29.3%) \$ 95,160,446	(8.6%) \$28,010,192
Kansas City and Jackson County Combined (C)	\$131,702,640	(56.0%) \$ 73,718,432	(30.7%) \$ 40,475,488	(13.3%) \$17,508,720
St. Louis County Alone (D)	\$211,831,107	(68.7%) \$149,582,352	(27.5%) \$ 60,022,080	(3.8%) \$ 8,226,675
Jackson County Alone (E)	\$ 52,420,872	(50.7%) \$ 26,589,168	(44.6%) \$ 23,355,584	(4.7%) \$ 2,476,120
Springfield, St. Joseph, & Columbia Combined (F)	\$ 78,222,677	(55.3%) \$ 43,262,608	(38.1%) \$ 29,792,864	(6.6%) \$ 5,167,205
All Urban Districts Combined	\$535,181,072	(59.6%) \$319,066,096	(30.9%) \$165,428,848	(9.5%) \$50,686,128

Table 15
Amounts and Main Sources of Revenue of
Missouri Urban-Metropolitan Schools
By School Districts Areas For 1975-76

Geographical Area	REVENUE SOURCES			
	Total Amount	Revenue from Local Sources	Revenue from State Funds	Revenue from Federal Government
St. Louis and Kansas City Combined (A)	\$189,695,944	(52.2%) \$ 99,048,933	(31.1%) \$ 58,984,413	(16.7%) \$31,662,598
St. Louis and St. Louis County Combined (B)	\$347,113,973	(62.7%) \$217,562,852	(28.6%) \$ 99,362,903	(8.7%) \$30,188,218
Kansas City and Jackson County Combined (C)	\$134,920,306	(56.6%) \$ 76,341,744	(32.5%) \$ 43,790,992	(10.9%) \$14,787,570
St. Louis County Alone (D)	\$236,690,516	(70.0%) \$165,770,383	(25.4%) \$ 60,151,338	(4.6%) \$10,768,795
Jackson County Alone (E)	\$ 55,647,819	(52.3%) \$ 29,085,280	(43.1%) \$ 24,018,144	(4.6%) \$ 2,544,395
Springfield, St. Joseph, & Columbia Combined (F)	\$ 82,080,588	(54.3%) \$ 44,568,544	(38.6%) \$ 31,695,824	(7.1%) \$ 5,816,220
All Urban Districts Combined	\$564,114,867	(60.0%) \$338,473,140	(31.0%) \$174,849,719	(9.0%) \$50,792,008

Conclusions

From Tables 13, 14, and 15, it is clear that the urban-metropolitan school districts of Missouri, during the period 1973-74 to 1975-76, received well over half of their revenues from their local communities. In St. Louis County, we find the highest level of local financial support, approximating 69% throughout the three-year period surveyed.

It appears, also, that Jackson County alone had the lowest level of local financial support consistently throughout the three-year period, approximately 51%. It should be noted, also, that throughout the three-year period, no geographical area received as much as 19% of its school revenue from the federal government. The combined school districts of St. Louis and Kansas City reached a high in federal assistance of 18.6% during school year 1974-75; however, this level of assistance fell to 16.7 in 1975-76.

It is interesting to note also that St. Louis and Kansas City combined gave more local financial support to their schools than did suburban Jackson County and close to the support provided by the three combined urban centers of Springfield, St. Joseph, and Columbia.

Finally, it should be noted that at no time during the three-year period surveyed did the State of Missouri's contribution to its urban-metropolitan schools amount to one-third of their revenues.

Part II - School District Questionnaire

Each respondent school administrator was asked to rank nationally identified educational problems in order of importance and priority in his/her district (Items I through VIII).

Also listed are other educational problems (Items IX through XIV) identified by administrators.

Below is a summary analysis of the ranking of educational problems:

Problem Area	Rank Order
I. Financial	1
II. Student-related	5
III. Curriculum	4
IV. Teacher-related	3
V. Community-related	6
VI. Administrative	8
VII. Desegregation/Integration	7
VIII. Legislative Concerns	2
Others: (identify them)	
IX. Board of Education	
X. School/Community Public Relations	
XI. Community Involvement	
XII. Federal Regulations	
XIII. Instruction Delivery Systems	
XIV. Employee Relations	

Part III - School District Questionnaire

In addition to ranking the identified educational problems, school administrators were asked to respond to a more in-depth breakdown of the problems by indicating whether they were of immediate concern, of possible future concern, or of no concern to their districts.

Below is a summary of the data analysis:

	Immediate Concern Percentages	Possible Future Concern Percentages	No Concern Percentages
I. Financial Problems			
A. Insufficient Funding	83%	17%	0%
B. Inflated Costs	93%	7%	0%
C. Urban-related (overburdens)	50%	40%	10%
I. Noneducational			
a. Theft and vandalism	60%	28%	12%
b. Maintenance	60%	36%	4%

c. Security programs	44%	44%	12%
d. Health programs	28%	60%	12%
e. Attendance	37%	42%	21%
f. Transportation	48%	30%	22%
2. Educational			
a. Increasing staff costs	88%	12%	0%
(1) Rising salaries & fringe benefits	96%	0%	4%
(2) Specialists for urban-related problems	16%	76%	8%
(3) In-service training & retraining of urban teachers & administrators.	36%	60%	4%
(4) Increased personnel	27%	31%	42%
(5) Special education costs	50%	39%	11%
(6) Additional alternative programs	58%	33%	8%
(7) Decreased student-teacher ratio	52%	31%	17%
(8) Administrative costs	52%	33%	15%
(9) Preschool education	52%	44%	4%
b. Materials, supplies, & educational equipment	73%	27%	0%
II. Student-related Problems			
A. Student values and attitudes in conflict with those of school	67%	26%	7%
B. Health-related problems	82%	18%	0%
1. Alcohol	89%	7%	4%
2. Drugs	86%	11%	3%
3. Venereal Diseases	61%	36%	3%
4. Malnutrition	23%	46%	31%
5. Personal Hygiene	38%	46%	15%
6. Smoking	93%	3½%	3½%
7. Pregnancy	68%	25%	7%
C. Student perception of the curriculum as IRRELEVANT	50%	38%	12%
D. Student unreadiness for academic activities at various levels	59%	36%	5%
1. Kindergarten	52%	36%	12%
2. Elementary school	52%	44%	4%
3. Secondary school	72%	28%	0%
4. Other	70%	30%	0%
III. Curriculum Problems			
A. How to personalize (individualize) instruction	82%	14%	4%
B. How to relate to and capitalize on student experiences	68%	21%	11%
C. How to improve teaching techniques	92%	8%	0%
1. Motivation	88%	12%	0%
2. Methodology	60%	36%	4%
3. Classroom management - promoting discipline	88%	12%	0%
D. Areas of suspected curriculum deficits	68%	32%	0%
1. Citizenship development	84%	16%	0%
a. Respect for and support of constituted authority	87%	13%	0%
b. Willingness to participate in the democratic process	64%	36%	0%
c. Respect for the feelings, rights of others, and a sense of responsibility to others	73%	27%	0%
d. Willingness to cooperate within a competitive system	65%	35%	0%
e. Understanding of self and others	69%	27%	4%
2. Provisions for cultural/ethnic diversity	46%	42%	12%
3. Provisions for the development of sound study habits	81%	15%	4%
4. Provisions for responsible development in the affective domain	65%	35%	0%
5. Provisions for the development of pupil problem-solving ability	64%	32%	4%
6. Provisions for the development of the BASIC skills			
a. Communication	90%	10%	0%
(1) Reading	88%	4%	8%

(2) Writing	96%	0%	4%
(3) Ability to detect & analyze bias	85%	11%	4%
(4) Speaking	100%	0%	0%
b. Mathematics			
(1) Computational skill involving the 4 fundamental processes	92%	8%	0%
(2) Problem-solving skills	88%	8%	4%
(3) Higher mathematics skills and abilities	78%	15%	7%
c. Basic science knowledge and understanding	72%	16%	12%
d. Basic knowledge and understanding of history & geography	71%	21%	8%
7. Provisions for career orientation & development	77%	11½%	11½%
8. Provisions for accurate learner assessment and placement	65%	23%	12%
9. Provisions for individual-paced learning	69%	23%	8%
IV. Teacher Problems			
A. Conflict of teacher (school) values or attitudes with those of students	54%	38%	8%
B. Updating teacher competence in instruction	55%	37%	8%
C. Improving teacher skills in pupil assessment	70%	26%	4%
D. Provisions for helping teachers meet the growing demand for accountability	79%	17%	4%
E. Increased teacher demands (militancy) for roles in			
1. Decision-making process	64%	36%	0%
2. Resolution of school problems	62%	38%	0%
F. Provisions for means of identifying the keys to successful teaching	79%	12½%	8½%
G. Working with learners from different ethnic/cultural/socioeconomic backgrounds	52%	41%	7%
H. Provisions for pre- and in-service training	63%	26%	11%
I. Classroom control and management	78%	18%	4%
J. Broadening professional opportunities at teacher-training institutions	44%	41%	15%
K. After school and extra-curricular demands upon teachers	37%	52%	11%
L. Teacher-community relationships	52%	48%	0%
M. Teacher apathy	42%	54%	4%
V. Community Problems			
A. Conflict of community values or attitudes with those of pupils and school	50%	46%	4%
B. Community demand to be involved in school decisions	44%	37%	19%
C. Community indifference and hostility	35%	42%	23%
D. Community lack of understanding of school program and problems	64%	25%	11%
E. Difficulties arising from housing patterns			
1. Segregation	35%	43%	22%
2. Resegregation	28%	36%	36%
3. Busing	17%	46%	37%
4. Underuse of school buildings	25%	37½%	37½%
F. Economic status of the community	27%	50%	23%
G. Inadequate coordination of social services	23%	58%	19%
H. Inadequate acceptance on part of community or responsibility for school-age children	48%	32%	20%
I. Impact of politics and special interest groups	34%	55%	10%
J. Population trends	48%	44%	7%
K. Utilization of school buildings	41%	41%	18%
VI. Administrative Problems			
A. Limited perception of the role of the administrator	35%	50%	15%
B. Bureaucracy (federal, state, and local)	79%	21%	0%
C. Teacher rights and responsibilities	59%	41%	0%
D. Community-school relationships	73%	12%	15%

E. Conflict between educational leadership and educational management	35%	46%	19%
F. Teacher relationships in instruction, discipline, evaluation, and responses to special interest groups	50%	42%	8%
G. Discipline	81%	11%	8%
H. Student rights	50%	42%	8%
I. Building security	61%	35%	4%
J. Need for administrative tenure	27%	31%	42%
K. Organizational structure of administrative staff	31%	38%	31%
L. Management of physical facilities	35%	35%	30%
M. Administrators' rights and responsibilities	38%	31%	31%
N. Staff evaluation	67%	11%	22%
VII. Desegregation			
A. Neighborhood school concept	41%	37%	22%
B. Move from familiar school environment to unfamiliar ones			
1. Community reactions	46%	42%	12%
2. Staff reactions	37½%	50%	12½%
3. Student reactions	43½%	43½%	13%
C. Court orders for desegregation	17%	50%	33%
D. Busing vs. transportation	18%	50%	32%
E. Open housing laws	27%	31%	42%
F. Effects of desegregation on school curriculum, achievement, and discipline	44%	36%	20%
G. Community reactions to desegregation	29%	46%	25%
H. Variance of reaction to desegregation on socio-economic levels	33%	33%	33%
I. Desegregation and integration in the school	37½%	33%	29%
J. Staff role in desegregation	32%	40%	28%
K. Title IX - sex discrimination	73%	19%	8%
L. Legal, educational, political implications	64%	28%	8%
M. Adequate resources for desegregation plans/action	45%	35%	20%
N. Relationship with news media	44%	24%	32%
O. Community resources as supportive agencies in the process of desegregation	33%	42%	25%
VIII. Legislative			
A. Mandated six-hour school day	61%	14%	25%
B. Two-thirds majority vote	100%	0%	0%
C. Assessed valuation of property	94%	3%	3%
D. Other sources of revenue	97%	3%	0%
E. Retirement	42%	37%	21%
F. Methods (equality) of taxation	86%	14%	0%
G. Develop lines of communication between schools & legislators	67%	30%	3%
H. Voucher Plan System	12%	48%	40%
I. Federal regimentation	86%	11%	3%

SECTION III

URBAN SCHOOL CONCERNS AND ISSUES IN MISSOURI

CHAPTER V FINANCIAL CONCERNS

Introduction

In this section, the Urban Education Study Committee has provided eight chapters each of which examines in detail *one* of the eight major areas of concerns uppermost in the minds of school district administrators throughout urban Missouri. It was in these eight areas of concern that the Committee's Urban Education Study was primarily conducted; it was around these eight areas that the Committee's questionnaire was constructed.

The items and questions comprising the Urban Schools Study Questionnaire were, in fact, more specific delineations of the following basic questions that were put to the district administrators:

1. What do you perceive as the most crucial financial issues and problems facing Missouri's urban schools?
2. As you administer your school district, what are the major student-related concerns you have?
3. What are the more crucial curriculum-related problems and issues in your school district?
4. In your district what are your major teacher-related concerns? What issues are paramount in these concerns?
5. To what extent and in what ways has community involvement been a matter of concern in your district?
6. What are the major administrative problems your district is facing? What are the issues involved?
7. To what extent and in what ways is school desegregation-integration a matter of concern and issue in your district?
8. What legislative concerns do you have relative to the problems and needs of your district?

The reader will recall that in Chapter IV of this report, the results of the Urban Education Questionnaire Study were summarized. The eight chapters which follow speak to these results.

Each of these chapters was written by a subcommittee and was based, to the extent possible, on the data generated by the study. Wherever necessary,

however, data from other sources—particularly from the related literature—were considered by the writers in arriving at their interpretations of the urban school district administrators' views and concerns. Each chapter was later reviewed by the entire Committee and, where deemed necessary, revised to reflect the general consensus of the Committee as a whole as to how urban school district administrators across the State of Missouri see the problems and issues in the education they are called upon to provide. It is felt that these eight chapters, taken collectively, do indeed reflect those views.

Perhaps a few words of caution are in order. The Survey Study, because of real limitations of time, funds, and workers, was restricted to urban school district administrators. The results, therefore, necessarily reflect only the views of these officials as to what Missouri's urban education problems, concerns, and issues are. Very probably, had parents, teachers, local building principals, students, noncertificated persons, and members-at-large of the various urban communities had an opportunity to express their views on these same eight areas, they might have seen different problems, different issues, or different concerns. Possibly, too, they might have seen the same problems the district administrators saw, but in different perspectives and in a different order of urgency.

This section, then, presents only the views and concerns of Missouri's urban school district administrators as the Committee, through a careful analysis of its questionnaire returns, was able to infer. Any errors in this inference are the Committee's, not the administrators'. That the views of other vitally interested groups cited above are of major importance, there is no doubt. Possibly, these views will be sought in the future. Certainly, for the present, the views of those charged with the responsibility for administering the State's urban schools are of real and vital significance to all Missourians.

CHAPTER V

FINANCIAL CONCERNS

Virtually all Missouri school districts—rural, small town, suburban, and city—have pressing financial problems. One source of these problems is Missouri's general underfinancing (relative to states of comparable wealth) of public services, including education. Solutions to this problem will require increased popular demand for improved public services and an increased willingness to pay for such services. Another financial problem common to all of Missouri's schools is inflation. Labor-intensive organizations such as schools, in which improved productivity is hard to achieve, are particularly vulnerable to inflationary cost increases in utilities, maintenance, school supplies, and wage increases for employees. Another common source of financial distress is federal "aid"; it costs money and much effort to get the aid. It costs even more local money to continue programs and projects initiated by federal grants. Still another source of distress is the continuing high level of public expectations relative to the schools. Each fresh idea—career education, environmental education, special education for all, aesthetic education—places new demands (often without accompanying resources) upon strained school budgets. Even today's renewed emphasis upon the basics is costly, for no one seems to want to drop present programs in order to make resources available for "basics."

But these financial problems common to all districts are not the principal concern here. Rather, it is to focus attention upon the financial problems which are peculiar to the state's metropolitan areas: St. Louis and St. Louis County, Kansas City and Jackson and Clay Counties, St. Joseph, Springfield, and Columbia. Before this task is begun, it must be pointed out that the distinction between "city" and "outstate" districts is of limited usefulness. Perhaps the distinction had merit decades ago, when Missouri's cities were the centers of wealth and sophistication (Everything's up to date in Kansas City. . . , "Meet me in St. Louie, Louie; meet me at the Fair. . ."). But, since the mid-century, suburban sprawl, abetted by public policies regarding highways, housing, and welfare, has drastically changed the positions of our two great city districts relative to each other, and particularly relative to their adjacent suburbs. Less drastic but no less visible changes have affected smaller cities such as Springfield, St. Joseph, and Columbia. In other words, just as there are differences between "outstate" areas which lie in rich agricultural areas and those which lie in impoverished portions of the Ozarks, so there are differences within and among the metropolitan areas. For example, the financial problems of Clayton and Wellston are very different, as are those of St. Louis and Kansas City. Part of the conventional wisdom of Missouri politics is that the metropolitan areas need to "work together" in the legislature, but

the fact of the matter is that efforts to alleviate financial problems in one segment of the state's metropolitan areas are likely to aggravate problems in another segment. One of the studies done in conjunction with the 1976 Governor's Conference emphasized this point: *"Central cities in Missouri possess significantly different fiscal characteristics and will not be affected in the same manner by a state equalization formula"*. The same thing should be said of the suburbs. For example, some are growing and some are shrinking; a decision to shift aid calculations from using current-year eligible pupil data to previous-year eligible pupil data would affect different suburbs in different ways. There is a need for policies and policy makers responsive to the fact that the outward similarities of metropolitan areas mask profound differences within and among the areas.

One more statement is essential before beginning the examination of financial problems in Missouri's metropolitan school districts. Although the analysis is based on the most recent data available, many changes have, no doubt, occurred since some of the data were collected. New trends and forces are at work in the metropolitan areas. The high costs of energy for commuting, coupled with the high cost of new housing, may lead to a slowing or even a reversal of the flight to suburbia which has characterized the past quarter century. In conducting the analyses, there has been an acute awareness that the "old" data (1969-74) often fail to detect such trends. There is an urgent need for improved forecasting in order to achieve better policies for school finance.

The data base which provides the foundation for the remainder of this section is displayed in Table 16. The data there are taken from the *Annual Reports of the Public Schools of the State of Missouri* and from the *Technical Report* prepared by the Education Commission of the States for the 1976 Governor's Conference. The table is used as a basis for discussing three aspects of the financial problems of Missouri's metropolitan school districts: (1) problems related to district enrollment; (2) factors related to district financial capacity; and (3) factors related to educational needs. In addition, two other factors are briefly discussed: (4) municipal overburden, and (5) cost of educational services.

1. Enrollment

One of the oldest issues in public education involves the question of "ideal district size." The issue will not be resolved here. Nonetheless, it is worth noting that there are some rather small districts on the list of urban districts: 10 of the 44 metropolitan districts enroll less than 2500 students. Six of the 10 are shrinking, and two others are growing very slowly. Particularly in the upper grades where specialized programs ought to be available, the per pupil costs of providing such programs are relatively high

in small districts. While these high per pupil costs can be readily borne in small districts which are wealthy, e.g., Clayton and Brentwood, small districts which are poor, no matter how hard they try, cannot provide similar excellence. The persistence of small school districts in metropolitan areas, and the frequency with which such districts appear to be islands of affluence or of poverty, makes all too visible the inequities embedded in Missouri's school finance structure. At the other end of the scale are the two very large districts: St. Louis and Kansas City. Enrollments in the range of 20,000-25,000 appear to approach the upper limits of educational efficiency; beyond that, the costs of coordination and oversight may mount more rapidly than per pupil cost savings. The point is a simple one: Financial problems may stem from excessive smallness or from excessive largeness, although size is obviously not the only cause of financial problems. (In another era when St. Louis was larger, it did not appear to have as severe financial problems as it does today.) The solutions to such problems obviously differ. Failure to resolve the problems perpetuates inequity and waste in our metropolitan areas. Some form of school district reorganization reform seems imperative if equity is to be achieved.

As indicated in the Enrollment Trend column of Table 16, district size is not a constant. In just four years many districts—St. Louis, Kansas City, Ferguson-Florissant, Ritenour, Kirkwood, Webster Groves, Ladue, Bayless, Clayton, Wellston, Brentwood, Valley Park, Raytown, and Center—have lost at least 15% of their students, and in most of these districts the enrollment decline will continue. Such declines produce enormous financial problems: under-utilization of space, loss of state aid, inability to hire new teachers at lower salaries, top-heavy administrations, and the like. Yet, there are other districts in which enrollments have grown. For these districts, the problem lies in the high costs of new building construction.

In summary, metropolitan enrollment patterns present two fundamental sources of financial stress. First, the existence of very large and very small districts contributes heavily to the perpetuation of inefficient use of financial resources. Second, population changes cause fluctuations in enrollments, and these fluctuations too often, in turn, lead to patchwork planning and reactive budgeting.

2. Financial Capacity

In Missouri more than half of local school operating funds are derived from local sources. A community's ability to pay for education depends largely upon its assessed valuation per pupil, and upon family income. An examination of the appropriate columns in Table 16 indicates that metropolitan school financial problems are evident in both of these areas.

As the Reported Assessed Valuation Per Pupil column indicates, there are huge variations among districts regarding property wealth. Several dis-

tricts, e.g., Independence and Raytown and Hickman Mills, report assessed valuations below \$10,000 per pupil. As the other extreme, Clayton and Brentwood report valuations in excess of \$30,000 per pupil. What this means, in practical terms, is that a \$1 tax levy will yield three times as many dollars in the second group of districts as in the first. Such variations are not primarily a result of differences in housing quality. They stem from concentrations of commercial and industrial properties. Some districts have high concentrations of such properties which yield many tax dollars and few youngsters. Other districts do not have such properties. Youngsters, who are the primary victims or beneficiaries of uneven distribution of commercial and industrial properties, obviously did not cause the maldistribution and just as obviously cannot change it. Such facts have led to *Serrano*-type litigation in other states; a similar suit has been filed in Missouri. The extent to which legislation recommended by the Governor's Conference on Education and enacted by the Legislature will alleviate the situation remains to be seen. Court action may be necessary.

Inequitable assessment practices make a bad situation worse. It is no secret that assessment ratios vary tremendously among Missouri counties; a comparison of the Reported and Adjusted columns of Table 16 shows the differences in value per pupil when Tax Commission adjustments are made (But the table fails to show the effects of inequitable assessments *within* counties—effects which would further alter the relative ability to pay of various districts.) Even at the gross county level, it quickly becomes apparent that discrepancies between reported and adjusted valuations have significant implications. St. Louis, which perennially has been charged with "lack of effort" (the reported tax rate for St. Louis does *not* include the 66¢ increase approved by the voters in 1976), has an adjusted tax rate *much higher* than that of the other major cities, and higher than that of most districts in Clay, Jackson, and St. Louis Counties. This is true despite the fact that only Wellston reports a lower median family income, and only half a dozen districts of any size report a lower adjusted property valuation per pupil. The continued allegation that "St. Louis doesn't try" seems unwarranted.

The discrepancy between reported and equalized assessed valuations does more than distort images about the relative efforts of various districts within the metropolitan areas. The fact that these districts differ from each other in their county assessment ratios undoubtedly creates the suspicion that there is something unfair about the revenue and taxation system, and this sense of unfairness is translated into apathy or resistance when taxpayers are asked to increase their taxes.

Perhaps the most striking financial figures in the table are those in the Median Family Income column. In the five major cities, median family incomes are well below the figures for most suburban districts.

This presents two problems. First, there is the "ability to pay" factor. School taxes put a larger strain on the budgets of families whose income is at a subsistence level than upon those whose financial stress is occasioned more by large mortgages, installment debt, and the other accoutrements of "middle class" life. Second, there is the school-home factor, discussed below under the heading of *needs*.

3. Educational Needs

Despite many happy exceptions, there is a strong correlation between socioeconomic status and student performance in school. Students whose families can afford trips together and attention to matters other than mere survival, have a head start over students whose families cannot support the type of atmosphere conducive to productive school work. In blunt terms, students who arrive at school ill-fed, ill-clothed, and upset by conditions in the home and on the street, need greater amounts of school services than students from "middle class America" whose school activities are reinforced greatly at home.

Close inspection of Table 16 shows that the median family income differential is not simply a matter of city versus suburb. There are great differentials among county districts too: compare, for example, the median family incomes in Wellston and Clayton, or in Kirkwood and Valley Park—both pairs of communities very close to one another.

The existence of ADC and orphan populations in school districts does not, by itself, pose severe problems. The problem arises when the concentration of such children becomes high. A glance at the % ADC-Orphans column in Table 16 makes it abundantly clear that Missouri's two largest districts—St. Louis and Kansas City, plus tiny Wellston (adjacent to St. Louis)—contain huge proportions of the children of poverty. This column illustrates the consequences of the socioeconomic "sorting process" which has occurred in metropolitan America since mid-century. Left behind in the cities are the children of families where unemployment rates are high, housing is substandard, and income is low. When these children arrive at school (and they arrive less regularly than children from "middle class" homes), they frequently bring learning needs which can only be remedied at great cost. Many such children have reading problems which require specially trained teachers and low class size; the costs of providing such services can easily double those of "average" classrooms. In addition, many students from lower socioeconomic standard backgrounds have serious physical and emotional problems; if the schools are to avoid ignoring or aggravating these problems, special care—and expense—must be allotted to the detection and alleviation of the problems. This care may involve extra classes, new types of personnel, more professional in-service programs, more specialized materials, more individualized program management, and a host of other cost-raising efforts. Finally, there are the other characteristics often associated

with the culture of poverty—violence, vandalism, and bitterness—which divert too many resources into nonpedagogical cost items such as security services, building repair, and the like.

At this point we are describing a situation widely and indiscriminately applied to "urban schools." The problems we have described are, most assuredly, very evident in big areas of our two largest cities. Yet, there are many schools in these cities which are essentially indistinguishable from those of more affluent suburbs. And, to an increasing extent, many suburbs are finding that they, too, have classrooms like those commonly ascribed to inner-city schools. The problems of poverty and educational disadvantage are widely and increasingly scattered throughout metropolitan districts.

4. Municipal Overburden

We already have alluded to the need to consider school tax rates in the context of equalization of assessments and in terms of burden upon family income. There is another consideration: the relationship between school taxes and other taxes. Kansas City's adjusted school tax rate appears to be somewhat low (though higher than that of Springfield and St. Joseph); however, Kansas City levies a special sales tax for schools. This fact, coupled with a per pupil adjusted property valuation nearly twice that of St. Louis, accounts for its higher level of per pupil spending. (St. Louis, it might be noted, levies an income tax upon individuals who live or work in the city: this tax helps to shift the burden of nonschool municipal services from the property tax to other sources.) But the most significant observation to make about school tax rates involves the matter of "municipal overburden." This overburden, which includes police, sanitation, road, justice, health, park, sewer districts, fire districts, library districts, and other services essential to life in metropolitan areas, adds significantly but unequally to the property tax burden of individuals in metropolitan areas. For example, in 1972 the county tax rate in St. Louis County was \$1.51, paid by everyone in the county. All county residents also paid the Special School District Tax, plus the Junior College District Tax, plus the Zoo-Museum District Tax. *In addition*, the two-thirds of the county population living in incorporated areas paid municipal taxes. Unequalized, those rates ranged from 25¢ per \$100 to over \$1.00 per \$100 in places such as Webster Groves, University City, Olivette, Valley Park, and Berkeley. Most of these rates, unlike school tax rates, are not subject to voter approval, but they negatively affect voter behavior in school tax elections.

5. Cost of Educational Services

The cost of providing a given type of education may vary for a number of reasons. One of these reasons—differences in students and the concomitant differences required in educational programming—already has been discussed. But there

is another cost of education factor which has different roots, and which appears to pose particular financial problems for many metropolitan school districts. *The unit cost for teachers is higher in most metropolitan districts than in most nonmetropolitan districts.* There are many reasons why this may be so. One is the cost of living, which tends to be higher in metropolitan areas, and which is reflected in generally higher salaries for teachers and nonprofessional employees. A second is the hard fact of rapidly declining enrollments. The precipitous enrollment decline experienced by many metropolitan school districts means that new (bottom-of-the-salary-schedule) teachers are not employed, and so the average salary paid to the remaining teachers is not moderated by an influx of new teachers. Given the facts of tenure, and experienced-based salary schedules, the relative costs of education increase rapidly in districts experiencing enrollment declines. Closely related to these factors may be a third: teachers in metropolitan areas tend to be more militant and better organized than their rural counterparts (virtually all of the teacher strikes and other job actions which have occurred in Missouri have occurred in the metropolitan districts). There is a fourth factor, hard to measure and unpleasant to contemplate, but all too real. In too many metropolitan school classrooms teaching has become a stressful and even dangerous occupation; one outcome is a very high absence rate (which increases costs), and another is, or ought to be, an increase in salaries sufficient to attract and retain the rare individuals with the skill and the stamina to survive and to teach in situations which demand more than many teachers can deliver.

Conclusion

This chapter has touched upon five of the major

elements which affect the financial environment of learning in the public schools in metropolitan areas. It suggests that the problems interact with each other, and that piecemeal solutions may not be feasible. Moreover, the chapter has repeatedly indicated that the problems impact in different ways upon different portions of metropolitan areas. Finally, to return to the initial point, the problems which have been touched upon overlie the serious financial problems facing *all* Missouri schools. It is time now for the general public and for elected officials to sort out the universal and the particular financial problems of Missouri schools, and to address each in the context of the other. We believe that the following policy objectives should be sought:

1. Adoption of uniform property assessment procedures.
2. Revision of the school foundation program in order to assure that state school funds are concentrated in districts which have (a) the highest *need* for educational services; (b) highest *cost of education indices* (i.e. indices reflecting the differences in costs of providing a given educational program).
3. Reduced reliance upon the property tax as a source of school revenues.
4. School district reorganization in order to reduce inefficiencies and inequities.
5. Elimination of the 66.7% voter approval requirement for raising local school tax levies above the \$3.75 operating levy.
6. Development of a school finance monitoring and planning system which will detect changes in the conditions affecting school finance, and which will provide accurate, up-to-date, and comprehensible information concerning school finance to the citizens, parents, taxpayers, and policy makers of Missouri.

TABLE 16
FINANCIAL DATA

District (K-12)	1974-5 ADA	Enrollment Change, 71-5	Ass'd Value/ Pupil		Median Family Income, 1969	ADC- Orphans		School Tax Rates		Operating Revenue Per Pupil		
			Rpt'd	Add'd		No.	%	Rpt'd	Adj'd	Local+County	State	Total
St. Louis	101316	-17,546	20499	15817	8182	49210	49	2.69	3.49	636	450	1086
Kansas City	60147	-13,059	19253	29989	8807	22997	38	3.75	2.41	923	355	1278
Springfield	24354	-1,113	14185	23178	8312	4289	16	3.27	2.00	555	469	1024
St. Joseph	16760	-1,385	9986	16643	8458	2755	16	3.60	2.16	486	500	986
Columbia	12217	+566	14841	21415	9605	1263	10	3.66	2.54	626	422	1048
St. Louis County:												
Hazelwood	25876	+2,109	16781	19091	12392	543	2	4.57	4.02	862	389	1251
Parkway	24930	+3,663	18154	20652	16374	132	1	4.92	4.32	969	355	1324
Ferguson-Florissant	23225	-4,298	15467	17596	12392	2546	1	3.74	3.29	715	439	1154
Mehlville	13080	+1,246	15488	17620	12090	243	2	3.65	3.21	634	411	1045
Ritenour	12291	-2,086	15036	17106	10809	1345	11	4.22	3.71	826	413	1239
Pattonville	11738	-1,282	22462	25554	12073	485	4	3.75	3.30	938	332	1270
Lindbergh	11285	-1,244	18389	20920	13474	147	1	3.75	3.30	782	361	1143
Rockwood	10534	+1,394	18703	21299	12392	271	4	4.14	3.64	836	359	1195
Normandy	9216	-841	14647	17106	10636	2031	21	4.66	4.10	773	429	1202
Riverview Gardens	8981	-1,195	14135	16081	11759	382	4	4.20	3.69	676	418	1094
Kirkwood	7502	-2,197	21528	24492	14516	408	5	4.47	3.93	1091	293	1383
University City	7490	-681	19271	21924	11737	1236	16	5.16	4.54	1119	296	1415
Webster Groves	6563	-1,970	18956	21563	12402	473	7	4.74	4.17	1058	295	1343
Ladue	4981	-1,252	40285	45831	21265	57	1	3.75	3.30	1753	304	2057
Afton	3908	-645	22666	25786	12392	137	3	3.75	3.30	970	320	1290
Jennings	3125	-217	24285	27626	10429	419	13	3.75	3.30	1081	290	1371
Maplewood-R. Hgts.	3094	-200	22158	25209	9920	391	13	3.75	3.30	924	297	1221
Bayless	2668	-410	14954	17012	12392	62	3	3.68	3.23	658	398	1056
Hancock Place	2201	-278	14226	16184	10720	368	17	3.60	3.16	611	411	1222
Clayton	2168	-316	66207	75321	12392	24	1	3.47	3.05	2682	323	2905
Wellston	1951	-588	17180	19545	7252	1273	65	4.73	4.16	861	489	1350
Brentwood	1725	-315	33355	37946	12392	179	10	3.69	3.24	1348	285	1633
Valley Park	928	-188	19965	22713	9646	125	13	4.25	3.74	954	420	1374
Clay & Jackson:												
N. Kansas City	22832	-1,007	14498	19645	11063	1254	6	3.75	2.77	658	411	1069
Independence	16170	-1,324	9279	14453	10680	1971	12	3.75	2.41	398	527	925
Hickman Mills	14657	-762	8137	12674	17720	91	6	4.78	3.07	464	536	1000
Raytown	14380	-2,196	9706	15118	12119	160	1	4.90	3.15	563	535	1098
Grandview	7177	+631	10470	16308	10900	246	3	4.53	2.91	544	478	1032
Lee's Summit	6629	+251	13638	21396	10130	240	4	4.25	2.71	642	459	1091
Blue Springs	6229	+2,362	9192	14317	10130	231	4	4.57	2.93	476	549	1025
Ft. Osage	5750	+763	6969	10855	10600	109	2	4.55	2.92	352	568	920
Center	5220	-867	18980	29564	10130	26	1	3.75	2.41	819	360	1179
Liberty	4249	+200	13789	18684	10497	233	5	4.90	3.62	778	418	1196
Excelsior Springs	3923	+392	8418	12821	11063	323	8	3.70	2.43	388	529	917
Kearney	1489	+465	9922	13593	11063	35	2	3.75	2.74	447	536	983
Oak Grove	1443	+315	6500	10389	10130	88	6	3.75	2.35	316	580	896
Smithville	947	-12	12038	16494	11063	44	5	3.75	2.74	535	539	1074
Grain Valley	682	+66	8186	12750	11500	21	3	3.75	2.41	344	586	930
Lone Jack	326	+4	7523	12068	10130	6	1	4.35	2.71	472	601	1073

Suggested Readings

The *Report on School Finance* of the 1976 Missouri Governor's Conference on Education is by far the best source for analysis and information concerning the condition of metropolitan school finance in Missouri.

Additional useful sources include the following:

Missouri State Teachers Association, *Financial Facts* (Annual)
Missouri State Department of Education, *Public School Finance Study: Summary Report* (1972)

Missouri School District Reorganization Commission, *Equal*

Treatment to Equals: A New Structure for Public Schools in the Kansas City and St. Louis Metropolitan Areas (1969)

John Collins, University of Missouri-St. Louis, *School Financing in Missouri* (1974)

Task Force on Urban Education, DHEW, *Urban School Crisis* (1970)

Betsy Levin, et. al., *The High Cost of Education in Cities* (Washington, D. C.: The Urban Institute, 1973)

Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, *Financing Schools and Property Tax Relief: A State Responsibility* (Washington, D. C., A.C.I.R., 1973)

CHAPTER VI

STUDENT-RELATED CONCERNS

Since schools are established for the purpose of educating students, a consideration of the importance of student-related problems in urban education must necessarily involve an examination of every aspect of school operation since all will have some effect on students. This statement is especially true when we define "student-related problems" as "any problems which have an effect on students," rather than the definition—"problems caused by students." In discussing student-related problems in urban education, writers and educators are prone to focus on the latter definition and tend to speak immediately and exclusively about violence, truancy, drop-outs, vandalism, underachievement and other manifestations of student problems.

The image of urban education is based on the behavior of perhaps 5% to 10% of the student body. Schools tend to notice and respond first to school or organizational (maintenance) needs rather than to student needs. The student who "has problems" does not command the same level of responsiveness as the student who "causes problems"; i.e., school personnel tend to look at what happens from their administrative perspective. There is little that focuses on the 90% to 95% of urban students who strive to learn in an environment where most of the rules are made to control and most of the time of counselors, social workers, and others is taken up by those students who cause problems while those students who have difficulties often go unnoticed. It is unfortunate that when cuts must be made one of the first areas to be affected is that of student services (e.g., counselors, and social workers).

Violence in the nation's schools is well-documented—over 79,000 serious assaults on teachers each year, and school vandalism costing over half a billion dollars.

The issues to be considered in this chapter will be organized into two parts. The first will be an analysis of the data gathered from the Survey Questionnaires. The second part will be a discussion of the results in terms of the needs of students.

Data From Survey Questionnaires

A. Part II

The administrators of thirty-one (31) metropolitan urban school districts were asked to respond to a questionnaire on "Major Urban Education Problems in the State of Missouri." The following rank orders were obtained from Part II of the questionnaire in which they were directed, "Rank from one to eight in the order of their importance the educational problems of your school district."

1. Financial
2. Legislative
3. Teacher
4. Curriculum
5. Student-related
6. Community
7. Desegregation/Integration
8. Administrative

If one were to examine these rankings strictly on the basis of face validity, they are not at all surprising. The order actually represents the *sequence of reactivity* in which school officials *respond* to the *demands* placed before them. The greatest demands are in the areas of Financial (ranked #1) and Legislative (ranked #2) with the Legislative area overlapping considerably with the Financial. The close 1-2 rankings of these problem areas is indicative of the fact that an increasing percentage of the time of central administrators and school boards is being taken up responding to various mandated state and federal requirements and in generating sufficient funding to operate schools.

The next set of *demands* to which central administrators and school boards must *react* come from teachers (ranked #3) who are exerting more and more pressure to have their needs met in terms of salary, fringe benefits and working conditions. The curriculum, where teachers are also heavily invested and increasingly strong in stressing their positions, is ranked fourth.

Student-related concerns, where few demands are

actually placed before central administrators and school boards, is the next area of attention (ranked fifth) in the *sequence of reactivity*. This is an area of more *elective* action by schools; i.e., the outside pressure for response is not so great. Therefore, responses in this problem area are generally more crisis-oriented. This fact gives rise to the situation cited earlier relative to students who "cause problems."

The relatively low ranking of community problems (#6) is, perhaps, indicative of the fact that the current state of apparent public apathy has led to sharp decreases in school-community contacts and the community is not making demands on school officials as it did a decade ago.

The low rankings for Desegregation/Integration (#7) and Administrative (#8) are probably due to predominance of a single race in many of the reporting districts, and the perception of administrators that they have few administrative problems that cannot be solved or managed.

B. Part III

In Part III of the Survey Questionnaire the eight problem areas were broken down into subtopics and the respondents were directed to indicate the level of concern about each subtopic within their school district. The results for Student-Related Problems are presented in Table 17.

The data in Table 17 of this chapter indicate that students' smoking is a major problem area for the respondent administrators, with 93% of them saying that smoking is of immediate concern. Areas of almost equal frequency of concern were alcohol and drug use (89% and 86% respectively). Less recurring

but nonetheless cited after are problems of pregnancy (68%) and venereal diseases (61%). The data also show that the administrators are concerned that student values and attitudes are in conflict with those of the school (67%—immediate concern; 26%—possible future concern). Student unreadiness for academic activities at various levels, especially secondary school, is also an area of great concern. Finally, fifty percent (50%) of the respondents were immediately concerned that their students perceive the curriculum as irrelevant while an additional 38% saw this as a possible future concern.

The data presented in Table 17 deal largely with the problems which students cause and which command the responsiveness of central administrators and school boards. School officials are, of course, concerned with other problem areas which affect students. Some problems are so interwoven with other areas that the generalization, "student-related," tends to invite a focus only on problems that students directly cause. In order to get a true perspective on how the respondent administrators view student-related problems, it is necessary to examine each of the other seven problem areas covered in the Survey Questionnaire.

Therefore, student-related problems will be extracted from the sections on Financial, Legislative, Teacher, Curriculum, Community, Desegregation/Integration and Administrative problems. The relevant data from these sections will be presented in Tables 18 through 24 with each table being followed by a brief analysis. Findings will be discussed in the second part of this paper.

Student-related financial problems are presented in Table 18.

Table 17
Student-Related Problems

Problem	Level of (Percent) Concern		
	I*	PF*	N*
Health-related problems	81	18	0
smoking	93	3.5	3.5
alcohol	89	7	4
drugs	86	11	3
pregnancy	68	25	7
venereal diseases	61	36	3
personal hygiene	38	46	15
malnutrition	23	46	31
Student values and attitudes in conflict with those of school	67	26	7
Student unreadiness for academic activities at various levels	59	36	5
secondary school	72	28	0
other	70	30	0
elementary school	52	44	4
kindergarten	52	36	12
Student perception of curriculum as irrelevant	50	38	12

*I = Immediate concern

PF = Possible future concern

N = No concern

Table 18
Student-Related Financial Problems

Problem	Level of (Percent) Concern		
	I	PF	N
Materials, supplies and educational equipment	73	27	0
Additional alternative programs	58	33	8
Decreased student-teacher ratio	52	31	17
Preschool education	52	44	4
Attendance	37	42	21
In-service training and retraining of urban teachers and administrators	36	60	4
Specialists for urban-related problems	16	76	8

The data above show that administrators are concerned about the cost of materials, supplies and educational equipment (73%); funding for additional alternative programs (58%); and resources for decreasing the student-teacher ratio and providing for preschool education. There is moderate concern about pupil attendance. Although the immediate concern about in-service training for urban teachers and administrators is low (36%), an additional 60% of respondents saw this problem as being of possible future concern. The same situation is true for the need for specialists for urban-related problems: immediate concern—16%, possible future concern—76%.

An analysis of the student-related legislative

problems presented in Table 19 following indicates that the primary concern here is in the acquisition of financial resources to operate schools. All respondents were immediately concerned that a two-thirds majority is required for passage of school tax levies. Ninety-seven percent of the administrators were concerned about other sources of revenue while 94% were concerned about the method or level of assessed valuation of property within their school district. Alternate methods of taxation were of concern to 86%, and 67% of the respondent administrators saw a need to develop better lines of communication between schools and legislators, with the intent, obviously, of influencing the level of and procedures for funding public education.

Table 19
Student-Related Legislative Problems

Problem	Level of (Percent) Concern		
	I	PF	N
Two-thirds majority vote	100	0	0
Other sources of revenue	97	3	0
Assessed valuation of property	94	3	3
Methods (equality) of taxation	86	14	0
Develop lines of communication between schools and legislators	67	30	33

These findings suggest that while school officials may perceive the need for changes which will facilitate student development and achievement, they also feel that they are in a bind in being unable to generate the necessary funding to implement such changes. The level of federal, state, local and other financing available to support schools has a direct effect on the variety of programs offered, the quality of teachers and other resource persons, and the quantity and quality of instructional materials and equipment. Students can also have a direct effect on the level of state funding available to school districts since average daily attendance is an essential part of the school aid formula. Efforts to increase student

attendance have financial payoffs for school districts as well as educational payoffs for students.

Since school funding is still primarily based on local property taxes, a student's residence will be a significant factor in determining the quality of his/her educational opportunity. Although there is never a guarantee that high levels of funding will definitely result in outstanding educational programs, insufficient funding will guarantee that outstanding educational programs will not be available to enhance student development and achievement.

Student-related teacher problems are presented in Table 20.

Table 20
Student-Related Teacher Problems

Problem	Level of (Percent) Concern		
	I	PF	N
Provision for means of identifying the keys to successful teaching	79	12.5	8.5
Classroom control and management	78	18	4
Improving teacher skill in pupil assessment	70	26	4
Provisions for pre- and in-service training	63	26	11
Updating teacher competence in instruction	55	37	8
Conflict of teacher (school) values or attitudes with those of students	54	38	8
Working with learners from different ethnic/cultural/socioeconomic backgrounds	52	41	7
Teacher apathy	42	54	4

The concern here is largely in improving the teaching-learning process by helping teachers to identify the keys to successful teaching (79%). Several other problem areas could be subsumed under the above. Those are classroom control and management (78%), improving teacher skill in pupil assessment (70%), provisions for pre- and in-service training (63%) and updating teacher competence in instruction. Also of concern to a majority of the respondents was collision of values between teachers and students and problems involved in teachers working with learners from different ethnic/cultural/socioeconomic backgrounds. Teacher apathy was of immediate concern to 42% of the administrators and was a possible future concern for an additional 54%.

A significant number of issues which have direct effects on student achievement and student development are contained in Table 21.

Of primary concern in these student-related curriculum problems are how to improve teaching techniques (92%), how to individualize instruction (82%), and how to relate to and capitalize on student experiences (68%). The respondent administrators also identified many areas of suspected curriculum deficits within their schools. These include provisions for the development of basic skills (90%), citizenship (84%), and sound study habits (81%); career orientation and development (77%), individual-paced learning (69%), and affective development (65%); provisions for accurate learner assessment and placement (65%), and development of pupil problem-solving ability (64%). The item ranked lowest under immediate concern was provisions for cultural/ethnic diversity (46%). However, an additional 42% of respondents indicated that this area was of possible future concern.

Table 21
Student-Related Curriculum Problems

Problem	Level of (Percent) Concern		
	I	PF	N
How to improve teaching techniques	92	8	0
How to personalize (individualize) instruction	82	14	4
How to relate to and capitalize on student experiences	68	21	11
Areas of suspected curriculum deficits:	68	32	0
1. Provision for the development of the basic skills	90*	10*	0*
2. Citizenship development	84	16	0
3. Provisions for the development of sound study habits	81	15	4
4. Provisions for career orientation and development	77	11.5	11.5
5. Provisions for individual-paced learning	69	23	8
6. Provisions for responsible development in the affective domain	65	35	0
7. Provisions for accurate learner assessment and placement	65	23	12
8. Provisions for the development of pupil problem-solving ability	64	32	4
9. Provisions for cultural/ethnic diversity	46	42	12

*Estimate—based on percent for subtopics

Only one community problem (Table 22) was identified by a majority of respondents as being of immediate concern. That problem was community lack of understanding of school programs and problems (64%). Difficulties arising from housing patterns (i.e., segregation, resegregation and busing)

were of immediate concern to only about 26% of the administrators, but an additional 43% felt that these issues were of possible future concern. Inadequate coordination of social services was an immediate concern for 23% of the respondents and was a possible future concern for an additional 58%.

Table 22
Student-Related Community Problems

Problem	Level of (Percent) Concern		
	I	PF	N
Community lack of understanding of school programs and problems	64	25	11
Community indifference and hostility	35	42	23
Difficulties arising from housing patterns:			
1. segregation	35	43	22
2. resegregation	28	36	36
3. busing	17	46	37
Inadequate coordination of social services	23	58	19

No desegregation/integration problem was seen as an immediate concern by a majority of administrators (Table 22). However, the concerns are very real to those who are presently involved in that process and are seen to be of possible future concern to 33-50% of the other respondents.

Table 23
Student-Related Desegregation/Integration

Problem	Level of (Percent) Concern		
	I	PF	N
Move from familiar school environment to unfamiliar ones:			
1. community reactions	46	42	12
2. student reactions	43.5	43.5	13
3. staff reactions	37.5	50	12.5
Effects of desegregation on school curriculum, achievement and discipline	44	36	20
Desegregation and integration in the school	37.5	33	29
Staff role in desegregation	32	40	28

As Table 24 shows, there were only two student-related administrative problems, but these problems

(discipline—81% and student rights—50%) consume a significant amount of administrative time.

Table 24
Student-Related Administrative Problems

Problem	Level of (Percent) Concern		
	I	PF	N
Discipline	81	11	8
Student rights	50	42	8

Discussion of the Results

The discussion which follows will be based on the findings in Table 17 and Tables 20 and 24, and will be organized into four parts: (A) students, (B) teachers, (C) learning environments, and (D) curriculum and assessment.

A. Students

Aside from the family, schools are the institutions of society which have the potential for having the greatest effect on the nation's youth. In fact, an effect occurs, whether or not it is the desired effect. As people talk about the problems of urban education, they speak to school board members, administrators, teachers, business and community leaders. Very seldom do they speak directly to the consumers of American education—the students. While the student view should not be the only basis on which school policy is based, to ignore this important source of feedback is to guarantee that we will continue old programs or develop new programs which may be unrelated to student interests and needs and, therefore, are likely to be unsuccessful.

An understanding of urban students and their behavior is founded on two realities or urban life. First, urban America is multicultural, multiracial, multiethnic, and multiexperiential. We are not a single, monolithic society. This fact will have significant implications in discussions of discipline, curriculum, assessment and interpersonal relationships. Secondly, the urban environment is engaged in constant, rapid change. In many households both parents must work, and urban youth must assume greater responsibility at an early age for themselves and sometimes younger siblings. Urban youth have a wide variety of adult role models whose behaviors they may imitate, for better or worse. Many urban youth have acquired "adult" behavioral patterns by the time they reach junior high school. Therefore, some degree of smoking, drinking, drug use, and/or sexual activity are realities for many urban youth. In many respects, junior and senior high students perceive themselves to be just as "adult" as the teachers and administrators with whom they interact in school. Urban life and conditions often accelerate children's progress toward "adult" roles psychologically and physically.

For those reasons students tend to be more responsive when they are dealt with in a direct "adult" manner than when they are viewed and responded to with more paternalistic approaches.

B. Teachers

Administrators and school boards may talk about educational philosophy, goals, and quality education. These objectives are implemented, not by board members and administrators, however, but by teachers. Dysfunctional teacher-student relationships in the classroom can deny students meaningful learning experiences in even the best of school

districts. The teacher-student relationship is the core dynamic of education. Therefore, who the teacher is (in terms of personality and expertise) is extremely important. Teacher attitudes and expectations have a profound impact on students' perceptions, academic behavior and self-concepts.

The data in Table 20 indicate that administrators are greatly concerned about teachers' competence in instruction and classroom management. As knowledge grows and society changes, there is a great need for continued in-service training for teachers in both academic content areas and in interpersonal relations. There is a great need for more in-service training for teachers on the topic of working with the cultural minorities who represent an increasing percentage of urban school population, especially within the core of our big cities. Since most teachers were not trained to work with urban minority students, they have a serious gap in their professional preparation in terms of being able to relate successfully to these students. The absence of relevant training for teaching urban minority youths results in many teachers being unaccepting of and disrespectful toward them and their cultures. In-service training must be geared toward having teachers develop more positive attitudes toward minorities and their cultures, having teachers understand how the curriculum and various teaching approaches affect minority students and having teachers develop higher academic expectations for minority students. Such training is essential for *all* teachers, whether they teach in a rural area, in suburbia, or in the innercity.

Fifty-two percent of respondent administrators were concerned about teachers working with learners from different ethnic/cultural/socioeconomic backgrounds (Table 20), and less than 50% were concerned about other desegregation/integration issues (Table 23). School districts have largely allowed teachers to volunteer for in-service training on desegregation issues. The result has been that many of the teachers who need the training the most have elected not to attend and have continued to handicap minority students and themselves. If we are to make progress in this area, then school districts must provide additional inducement for teachers to attend such workshops. Required participation may cause hostility initially, but competent workshop leaders could overcome that and help teachers to grow within the context of the training.

C. Learning Environments

The nature of the learning environment is directly related to student development and academic success. That environment consists of the physical setting (neighborhood, school building, classrooms), the interpersonal climate (student population, inter- and intra-group relationships), and the academic climate (curriculum, teaching materials and approaches, assessment procedures). Too, many urban schools are physically unappealing and overcrowded,

having an atmosphere of tension and having low levels of academic performance. While schools may be hard-pressed financially and unable to do much about the physical setting and the overcrowding, the effects of these conditions can be overcome by direct, effective efforts in the interpersonal and academic areas.

As stated in the previous section, teacher values, attitudes and interpersonal skills affect teachers' interactions with students. Administrators also play a significant role in setting the interpersonal climate in the school. The administrator who is likely to be most effective in setting a positive tone in his/her school is one who does not confuse "order" with "education," who is genuinely interested in students' development and not just system maintenance, who is open to student input in decision making which will affect them, and who is respected but not feared. Students tend to respect authority figures, teachers as well as administrators, whom they perceive to have respect for them. The use of power alone, which is based on fear or dependency, no longer works. Most students are no longer afraid of the consequences that can be imposed by school officials (suspension, etc.). Therefore, power relationships must be replaced by influence relationships in which students respond positively to teachers and administrators because they perceive that teachers and administrators are concerned about and responsive to student concerns and not just trying to "push students around."

An additional factor which may contribute positively or negatively to the attitude which students bring to school is that of community and family attitudes. The high level of mobility within urban society has resulted in many parents making no investments in their communities or in their schools. This fact contributes to the concern of administrators that their community has a lack of understanding of school programs and problems (Table 22). This lack of interest and lack of understanding by some parents has led to their being unresponsive to their children when they talk about their school work and related issues.

One of the primary sources of assistance with student-related problems is that of pupil personnel services (e.g., counseling, guidance, social work, etc.). Effective student personnel workers, who have a background in understanding students and their problems as well as in understanding school functioning, can serve as effective feedback sources within schools. They are in an excellent position to help schools in anticipating student needs rather than simply reacting to student crises, provided that they are allowed to perform appropriate student assistance functions instead of performing as quasi-administrators or highly-paid clerks.

D. Curriculum and Assessment

The data presented in Table 21 show that urban administrators are greatly concerned about the curriculum. The current reemphasis on "back to the basics" has led many districts to reevaluate so called "elective" courses which allowed students to "opt out" of basic courses.

The curriculum is of additional concern when we consider the education of urban minority youth. The curriculum in most urban school districts is monocultural and not reflective of the multicultural, multiethnic, and multiracial nature of American society. The result is that the curriculum is often unmotivating for minority youth because they seldom see themselves and their culture reflected positively in course content and materials. This has led to a distortion of the contributions made by minority persons to American society. In short, much of urban education lacks content validity for urban youth. The consequences of this fact stand out boldly when minority students are assessed within the educational system.

The national pattern indicates that classification systems based upon standardized tests have systematically mislabeled a disproportionately large number of urban minority youth. Educators *must* examine the application, interpretation and appropriateness of *all* testing.

Conclusion

Since school administrators and boards of education are caught up in a fairly predictable *sequence of reactivity* in which they *respond to demands* placed before them, there is little *proactivity* in addressing the needs of students. Understandably, a significant amount of time which could be devoted to student development issues is spent instead on financial considerations. This need not be the case, however. The current public lack of confidence in and lack of moral and fiscal support for schools is based largely on a lack of knowledge about what the schools are actually doing; i.e., "what are we getting for our money?"

Circumstances suggest that school boards should undertake serious examinations of what their communities want from public education. Some results might be specifying costs of desired programs and services and working toward getting the community behind their efforts, both morally and financially.

If we are to rise above the current plateau of public school crisis, then educators and school boards must to a greater degree overcome being reactive schooling middlepersons and also become sensitive, proactive educational leaders.

CHAPTER VII

CURRICULUM ISSUES AND CONCERNS

Today, curriculum is defined in many ways. Broader conceptualizations of curriculum tend to de-emphasize subject matter and to stress in its place pupil experience. The most extreme views tend to discount organized subject matter altogether and to see the learner's own experiences as his/her own unique curriculum. Other concepts, while giving preeminence to experience in the definition of curriculum, nevertheless identify knowledge in its many forms as the logical end or goal of the curriculum. Thus, subject matter is an integral part of the curriculum regardless of grade or level.

Inasmuch as the school is, indeed, the agency established by society to promote mental and other related development within its children, this agency is the one primarily concerned with curriculum. If this premise is valid, the school is basically the curriculum planner and developer. Thus, the following criteria are not only educationally valid, but also functionally useful in arriving at a definition of curriculum:

1. The curriculum must have pupil learning as its primary objective. Hence, subject matter cannot be validly excluded from the meaning of this term.
2. Courses of study or lists of subject matter to be learned cannot qualify as curriculum since they do not constitute environments of learning. They are, however, guides or plans related in a significant way to curriculum.
3. Since learning is essentially a series of experiences culminating in some kind of change within the learner, and since the basic goal of curriculum is such pupil change, it follows that the notion of experience is an essential part of the meaning of curriculum.
4. Finally, since it is the business of the school to promote desired learning on the part of its pupils, curriculum development and presentation is the primary task of the school, i.e., structuring environmental situations both in and outside the regular classroom for the purpose of promoting desired pupil change. That other members of society in addition to school personnel might be involved in curriculum development and presentation does not alter the fact that the responsibility for curriculum is mainly the schools'.

In light of the criteria suggested above, the following definition of curriculum is offered:

The curriculum is a structured environment set up by the school, and under its direction and control, for the purpose of providing learners with opportunities to have a variety of experiences which are likely to culminate in desired learnings. This structured environment involves stimuli of many different kinds—a competent and stimulating teacher, pupil and teacher planning session, various goal-seeking activities, persons, places and materials to be used both by the teacher and the

pupil as a part of experience, and evaluation activities designed to give both the learner and the teacher some idea of learning progress and/or learning difficulties.

Teachers might well be guided by "curriculum guides" which, in the sense of the definition given above, are no more than suggestions relative to: (a) appropriate learning goals, (b) possible effective learning activities, (c) possible meaningful and helpful sources of information, and (d) ways of evaluating pupil progress. Thus, books are not the curriculum, courses of study are not the curriculum, subject matter—though a legitimate curricular goal—is not the curriculum, and finally even pupil experience, per se, whether in or outside of school, is not the curriculum. The curriculum is, rather, the total learning environment planned, developed and controlled by the school, with or without the help of outside persons or agencies.

As suggested in the concept briefly outlined above, the curriculum is increasingly seen today as having seven (7) essential dimensions:

1. Content—subject-matter, which consists of understandings, skills, processes, values, and attitudes.
2. Learning objectives—specific behaviors or performances, goals toward which the learner strives.
3. Learning environment—the setting or physical-emotional context in which the learning is to take place.
4. Learner activities—the various actions contrived both by the learner and the teacher as the things the learner can do to accomplish the learning objectives.
5. Instructional efforts—various actions, including strategies and methodologies employed by the teacher to assist the learner in his/her learning activities.
6. Learning and instructional materials consisting of written materials in the form of books, references, magazines, newspapers, pamphlets, brochures, guides, etc.; various audiovisual media such as film, ITV, records, tapes; and objects of various kinds and shapes to be handled by the learner in learning activities.
7. Evaluation materials and techniques—tests, rating scales, observation schedules, etc., all designed to assist both the learner and the teacher to assess and determine the learner's growth and development toward mastery of learning objectives.

It is at once obvious that in each of these seven curriculum dimensions, there can and very likely will be problems. It can be said with reasonable accuracy that the more heterogeneous the learners are in learning readiness, interest, and motivation, the more likely will the teacher encounter curriculum problems.

Perhaps it will be noted that among the areas of heterogeneity we did not include intellectual ability. This omission was deliberate—not because learners

do not differ in such ability, but because heterogeneity in this area has been widely exaggerated as a limiting factor in learning. It is proposed that by far, most learners (probably as many as 80 to 90 percent) are quite capable of satisfactory levels of subject matter mastery.

The urban school—particularly if it is in the inner core of the urban center—is likely to have the greatest degree of learner heterogeneity in the areas just cited. Hence, it follows that within these schools, the greatest variety and degree of curriculum-related problems arise, touching, no doubt, upon most, if not all, of the seven curriculum dimensions defined above.

As might well be surmised from the data presented in Chapter IV of this document, the most tangible and graphic curriculum problem throughout the State of Missouri—particularly in the inner cores of the urban/metropolitan centers—is *inadequate learner mastery of curriculum content*. Related to this problem, and probably because of it, is a generally widespread dissatisfaction on the part of the school districts with instructional efforts.

While it is difficult to rank all of the curricular concerns expressed by urban educators, it is clear that their greatest concerns are the basic skills of speaking, writing, mathematics, reading, and problem solving. These educators are at the same time concerned with the individualization of instruction, motivation, and discipline. Next in importance, as they see it, is citizenship development, followed by career orientation and a general grasp of basic science, history, and geography. Student development in the affective domain and provisions for cultural/ethnic diversity are also of vital importance.

In the endeavor to meet these concerns, urban school districts across Missouri have developed a number of innovative programs and projects. A few of these are summarized below:

Brentwood Public Schools: "Alternative Education Program"—the program is designed to give students a greater degree of freedom and responsibility in fulfilling their individual educational needs. The student, with the approval of his classroom teacher, is placed temporarily in an off-campus learning situation to practice skills and test his/her knowledge in an adult environment. Upon the completion of the assignment, the student reports the positive or negative features of the experience to the class and resumes classroom routines.

Independence School District: "Operation Independence"—the project is designed to improve the quality of education for handicapped children through individual prescription, contract learning and individual attention. The Operation Independence staff (a) presents programs and discussion groups for the community, (b) uses all forms of the media to develop public awareness, (c) conducts individual and group sessions for parents of target students. To accomplish its

objectives, Operation Independence prescribes individual programs of study, provides counseling conferences with the student and his parents, and provides teaching on the basis of contract learning by certified specialists.

Kirkwood School District R-7: "Sixth-Seventh Grade Multigrade Level Teaming"—a program designed to provide an alternative learning environment for students in which the students become actively involved in planning their learning activities. Math and language arts are taught on levels, with the students permitted to move at their own pace. Science and social studies are taught in learning stations. Interdisciplinary units are developed to correlate the discipline of math, science, language arts and social studies.

Rockwood School District: "Flexible Schedule"—a program of individualized instruction for academically motivated students, grades 10-12. The activities of the program are centered around large group instruction (once a week per class), small group seminars (two per week per class), and independent study (about 40% of the time). The large groups are used for imparting information in a lecture type setting as well as to serve as a motivational technique for students. The small groups are used primarily for discussion of topics under study and to provide the instructor a chance to monitor the progress of the students. During independent study time, students have the opportunity to work on research projects for their classes, conduct experiments, and to obtain individual help from the certified aide, teachers, or other students.

St. Louis Public Schools: "Computer Managed Learning—PLAN"—a program utilizing materials, methods, and resources developed for PLAN (*Program for Learning in Accordance to Needs). A computer assists the teacher in analyzing student needs and recommends a day-to-day learning program designed especially for the individual student.

Sedalia School District #200: "Secondary Program for Academically Talented Students"—a program designed to (a) identify youngsters possessing special talents and abilities, and (b) provide for the development of such special talents and abilities through individualized enrichment type learning projects which stimulate and challenge students beyond regular classroom requirements. Student study and research projects are scheduled both during and beyond the regular school day.

Blue Springs R-IV School District: "In-School Suspension Program (B.A.S.I.C.)"—a program designed to KEEP THE STUDENT IN SCHOOL, while (a) providing individualized instruction and counseling, (b) improving community relations, (c) giving school officials an alternative to cor-

poral punishment or out-of-school suspension, and (d) protecting state aid to the school. The student is tutored in his class assignments and is counseled by his counselor and instructor. The student is isolated from his peers.

Sedalia School District #200: "Alternative Class (Educational Adjustment)"—a program designed to (a) provide an alternative to suspension in discipline cases, (b) assist students to make behavioral adjustments while continuing their education, (c) prevent disruption of regular classroom programs by a few students, and (d) provide an opportunity for disruptive students to return to the classroom program once they have demonstrated attitudinal changes.

Riverview Gardens School District: "Board of Education Ad Hoc Committee On Discipline"—a program designed to (a) insure that the Board, community, and staff have an understanding of the nature of discipline in the schools, and (b) review the present policies and procedures of the District in matters of discipline. The Ad Hoc Committee is composed of three members of the Board of Education, two lay members, the superintendent, and assistant superintendent. This Committee held sessions with senior high administrators and with senior high faculty members. The latter involved an all-day meeting in which teachers met during their preparation period with the Ad Hoc Committee. The discipline areas of concern were categorized. Once the problem areas of discipline have been thoroughly discussed and solutions proposed, the Committee will follow a similar format on the junior high level and the elementary level.

Columbia Public Schools: "Reading Instruction in the Content Areas"—a program designed to improve teacher skills needed for teaching reading in the content area: science, mathematics, English, social studies, art, etc. A guidebook has been developed by the three reading resource teachers: (1) to provide information and examples of instruments designed for reading assessment, and (2) to define and describe general reading skills needed for content area reading and examples of how these skills could be taught. Workshops have been held to further acquaint teachers with these skills. Each participating teacher was observed by the reading resource teachers on six occasions and feedback sessions were held.

Kansas City Schools: "Cooperative Urban Teacher Education Program"—a program of human relations in-service training for teachers utilizing an interdisciplinary team composed of specialists in sociology, mental health and teacher education.

"Multimedia Approach To Instruction (In-Service Training)"—a program designed to train staff members in the areas of selection, preparation, and utilization of instructional materials in

the classroom and the operation of audiovisual equipment.

Parkway School District: "Elementary Mathematics Deficiency Remediation"—a program designed for concentration on the development of teaching skills in the areas of diagnosis and remediation of mathematical deficiencies among elementary school students.

Rockwood School District: "Improving Teacher Skills-Reading Instruction"—a program designed to (a) improve teacher knowledge and skills relative to individualized reading instruction, (b) improve student achievement and attitude toward reading, and (c) develop a reading guide for the school district. The activities designed to achieve these goals consisted of three intensive 102-hour summer workshops and with follow-up workshops and supervision during the school year. The summer workshops were led by nationally recognized reading experts. Approximately 50% of the elementary teachers of reading, all elementary principals, and all elementary special reading teachers participated in one of the three summer workshops.

St. Louis Public Schools: "Developmental Learning Program, K-4"—teachers attend an after-school course to learn methods which will provide an atmosphere of success for the child by using alternative methods of teaching. This program directs the teacher to look at the whole child, recognize strengths and weaknesses, and use this knowledge to reach weaknesses by using strengths.

St. Louis Public Schools: "Ethnic Heritage Studies"—operates in each magnet school and is intended to involve students, parents, teachers, and the community in ways that will strengthen their ethnic identity and develop awareness and empathy for the ethnic identities of their peers.

Brentwood Public Schools: "Seventh and Eighth Grade Homeroom"—is designed to utilize large group counseling to improve students' self-concept and, in turn, affect their behavior toward other people.

Joplin R-8 School District: "DUSO (Developing Understanding of Self and Others)"—is based on the premise that the classroom teacher can help students with normal developmental problems which confront all pupils.

Ferguson-Florissant School District: "Career Education-Cool Valley Bucks"—a project providing ways for fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students to earn money and become acquainted with the process of obtaining and keeping a job.

Webster Groves: "Community Campus"—a program which utilizes community resource people to assist interested students in pursuing off-campus involvement in an occupation of their choice.

Ferguson-Florissant School District: "Prevocational Center"—a program in which disadvantaged students are assisted in making career decisions through "hands-on" activities in various occupational clusters.

Riverview Gardens School District: "Strategies in Early Childhood Education"—a program designed to move the student along a behaviorally defined sequence until he/she reaches acceptable reading, writing, and arithmetic skills.

St. Joseph School District: "Foundation for Reading"—a project designed to identify students with reading deficiencies and raise their reading to a level more congruent with their grade in school.

University City School District: "Project Arch"—a program designed to upgrade student achievement in basic mathematical processes.

Kansas City School District No. 33: "Operation Read/Math"—a concentrated effort to improve the reading/mathematics achievement of elementary school students.

Columbia Public Schools: "Conceptually Oriented Mathematics Program (COMP)"—a program designed to provide continuous diagnosis and prescription for mathematics study in each of 25 levels for grades 1-8.

St. Louis Public Schools: "Reading Is Fundamental"—theater classes at Sumner High School read stories and perform plays and skits before audiences of elementary school pupils (Grades 4 to 6) who are enrolled in the Reading Is Fundamental Program. These dramatic productions are designed to motivate the elementary students to become interested in reading.

Additional innovative projects and programs in urban schools throughout the State of Missouri are summarized in Chapter XIII of this document.

Curriculum and Multicultural Education

One of the basic problems facing education today is that much of middle America has not recognized that this country is great because of its cultural diversity. The American schools and the institutions of higher education must begin now to educate for a pluralistic society.

"People are lonely because they build walls instead of bridges."

Author Unknown

The melting pot concept, so long perpetuated in this country, has been proven socially incorrect and intellectually indefensible. This theory, which states that all ethnic and cultural groups will eventually melt into one, has been replaced by a salad bowl or stewpot concept. As with stew, in which all the ingredients are mixed and simmered, the ethnic groups of the United States give off some of their

"flavoring" contributions to other while taking on some of those of other groups. In the "simmering" acculturation process, all are changed, but none lose their identity or value, and all contribute. The school is not the only place this "simmering" takes place but it is one of the most important.

And so the need for a multicultural approach to education becomes more and more vital. The word approach should be emphasized here because of its role in defining multicultural education. Multicultural education is not something which can be isolated into a one-hour class or even integrated into one subject matter. It also is not a program to be initiated at a certain grade level. It is, instead, an approach to the entire educational process—a humanistic way of looking at things. It involves mannerisms, speech, textbooks, bulletin boards, and just about every other aspect of the educational system.

To further define multicultural education, refer to "A Statement on Multicultural Education" made by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) in 1973. A portion of this statement follows:

...Multicultural education rejects the view that schools should seek to melt away cultural differences or the view that schools should merely tolerate cultural enrichment of all children and youth through programs rooted to the preservation and extension of cultural alternatives. Multicultural education recognizes cultural diversity as a fact of life in American society, and it affirms that this cultural diversity is a valuable resource that should be preserved and extended.

But why, one might wonder, should an educator have to worry with the value of other cultures when the mere task of teaching for quality education is more than a full day's job? The desire of some Americans to exclude minorities of color and poor whites from the education system must be considered when quality education is talked about. One must formulate a definition of quality education which includes (1) maximizing the academic achievement of every American child, and (2) developing multiracial, multicultural systems which de-emphasize racial hate and anger.

American schools seem to have adopted a policy wherein they serve as a means to transport the dominant culture. Minorities and lower socioeconomic classes are made to feel inferior through omission, derogatory texts, and teacher criticism. Consequently, many of these students tend to "drop out" mentally, even physically, from the classroom.

In order to better understand this, try role playing. For example, imagine yourself as a member of a baseball team. Every Saturday morning at practice, the coach ignore you. You never get to play in the games. Other team members mock you as a result.

Chances are, before too long, you will start skipping practice and begin pursuing some other interest or hobby. Why? Because you have learned that your chances of success at playing baseball are limited.

Proof of low achievement as a result of learned

limitations surrounds us. Consider, for example, women. Academically, girls are ahead of boys in the early grades but receive only 13 per cent of all earned doctoral degrees. In fact, a study by one of the Midwest Center for Equal Educational Opportunity staff members showed that by the time children reach the first grade, girls' visions of roles are limited to four: secretary, teacher, nurse, or mother; while boys of the same age view their occupational opportunities far more broadly. Or, if you prefer, consider the Afro-American whose mean income of those 25 and over was a mere \$3,766 in 1973 or the native American whose annual income was even less.

Good educational programs should not limit students, making them realize "their place in society," but should instead assist each student in recognizing his/her full potential and maximizing opportunities for a fuller life.

The entire educational atmosphere plays a role in determining student self-concept. However, the single most important element is teacher-administrator attitudes. Such attitudes are a part of a phenomenon sometimes referred to as the *hidden curriculum*. This phenomenon involves several factors, including the educator's use of power, peer interaction patterns, encouragement of stereotypic behavior, etc.

In-service training is necessary to help teachers and administrators become more aware of their biased actions and why they react to varying ethnic groups in the manner in which they do. In fact, it is extremely important to involve all members of the district's staff in ethnic awareness activities, as they all have an impact on the student's development. This includes bus drivers, cafeteria workers, security guards, secretaries, custodians, and librarians.

In addition to the hidden curriculum, the formal curriculum plays an important role in successful multicultural education. Textbook bias toward minorities on the basis of stereotypes, myths, half-truths, imbalance, and exclusion has been well documented. Educators need training in the evaluation of textbooks and any other classroom materials to check for race and sex bias. Often, a teacher will find that a text, which has been used for years, is very racist in pictorial content, for example. Learning to realistically evaluate materials for their treatment of minority ethnic groups or even ethnic divisions within the majority is essential.

Implementation of multicultural education requires an educator's total commitment—commitment to upgrade the quality of education being offered. Students must be regarded as unique individuals with special abilities and talents and taught to maintain a legitimate pride in their culture. Attempts to strip a child of his/her cultural identity or to ignore ethnic variations no longer has a legitimate place in education.

Implicit in the legitimate concern for cultural diversity is the concept that there are certain common basic values, skills, and knowledge that are

required by persons of all cultural backgrounds who choose to live in a given society. A common numeration system, monetary system, legal system, and basic language system are needed for persons of different cultural backgrounds if they are to live together successfully and work together productively. An understanding of how these systems work is also necessary if the individual is to be able to utilize the systems to manage his/her life effectively.

"We must learn to live together as brothers or perish together as fools."

—Martin Luther King

With Respect to Learning Objectives

The questionnaire sent to the school districts speaks only generally to the curriculum dimension of learning objectives and does not request a response as to levels of teacher competency in this area. Nevertheless, it seems safe to speculate that there might be less than desirable teacher and learner skill in the formulation of learner objectives in terms of pupil behavior.

Recent insights from the psychology of learning provide abundant evidence that teaching as well as learning are greatly facilitated when both the teacher and learner clearly understand and accept specific behaviors or abilities as concrete evidence of learning (content mastery). As a result of such understanding and acceptance, teachers have a clearer notion of the kinds, number and frequency of learner activities and learning environment likely to produce the desired behaviors (concrete evidence of learning) while the learners themselves have tangible action goals toward which to work.

Examples of learning objectives expressed as expected learner behaviors are given in abundance in the publication titled *Educational Objectives for the State of Missouri, 1973*, produced several years ago by the State of Missouri Department of Education. These objectives are grouped under a number of curriculum content areas.

Below are samples of State of Missouri educational objectives:

Communication

Objective 1: Ability to estimate the point of view of the sender of a message when the message includes internal clues.

Objective 2: Ability to estimate the effect upon the receiver of messages expressing different points of view.

Objective 3: Ability to distinguish biased from non-biased messages, especially in news articles.

Objective 4: Ability to detect where and when facts have been intentionally omitted in order to alter the impression of a message.

The reader's attention is directed to the verbs in each of these statements of learning objectives—to *estimate*, to *distinguish*, to *detect*. Each of these verbs identifies a specific communication skills behavior that can be observed. More importantly, each makes inescapably clear to both the teacher and the learner

what is to be learned and how such learning is evident.

To the extent that learners and teachers at all levels in Missouri's schools are *not* skillful in formulating these kinds of learning objectives, a serious curriculum problem exists.

The Learning Environment

The school district questionnaire spoke at some length to the learning environment as a possible troublesome aspect of the curriculum. Indications are that urban educators view this dimension of the curriculum as a source of difficulty. Some indication of their concern relative to this curriculum dimension might be inferred from the frequency of their ranking of "how to personalize or individualize instruction" and from the high frequency with which they ranked classroom management. Certainly, the teacher's strategies for teaching and for reaching each individual learner are essential aspects of the learning environment. Oddly enough, "methodology," which under any view is a key factor in the learning environment, was cited by fewer urban school districts than any other curriculum aspect as a matter of concern. Possibly, the low citation of methodology as an area needing improvement stems from the view, probably taken by many administrators, that methodology is reasonably appropriate.

Although the validity of curriculum content as generally perceived has been questioned by some critics of the school, the fact remains that this content generally represents the accumulated store of human knowledge. More importantly, this content represents society's major institutions and technologies. Hence, productive and responsible living in today's society demands a reasonable mastery of this content.

It is clear that many of the State's pupils are not motivated. It is interesting to note that while only 60% of Missouri's urban educators see teaching methodology as a matter of immediate concern, an overwhelming majority regard motivation as of immediate and pressing concern. Perhaps they see motivation more as an *internal* factor operating within the student than as a variable largely subject to teacher control within the classroom environment. Educators should view motivation as a product both of the learning environment provided by the school and the students' internal attitudes.

Learner Activities

In this dimension of the curriculum, the emphasis is on what learners are required or given an opportunity to do in order to achieve content mastery. The crucial question is: Are learners throughout Missouri's elementary and secondary schools being given the kinds of opportunities—tasks and problem situations—which can be reasonably expected to generate pupil content mastery?

To the degree that content mastery has not been defined in terms of tangible or behavioral educational objectives and that these behaviors have not been linked directly to specific developmental tasks, it is perhaps safe to conclude that improvement could be made in all schools—particularly those serving the State's cities—in that curriculum dimension related to the *structuring* of learning activities.

Instructional Efforts

In this dimension of the curriculum, there is more concern with what teachers do to bring about pupil learning (mastery of content) than with what pupils do. Several questions immediately come to mind in the endeavor to assess the adequacy with which this curriculum dimension is being met in Missouri's schools. Among such questions are the following:

1. Are Missouri elementary and secondary teachers generally using the most productive teaching strategies?
2. Are these teachers properly and adequately motivating learners?
3. Do Missouri teachers generally structure the kinds of learning environments that are conducive to learning?
4. Are these teachers warm, supportive, and inspiring?

The survey questionnaire seems to indicate that school administrators in the urban sections of the State feel that the answer to these crucial questions is "yes" since they cited improving teaching "methodology" as next to the least in frequency of their concerns.

Overall, Missouri urban educators are interested in students obtaining a high quality education. These educators recognize the importance of teacher methodology and have ranked that dimension of the curriculum second only to achievement in the basic skills. Citizenship was seen as an area of immediate concern by 84% of Missouri urban educators—a fact which would seem to indicate educators' desire to participate in a meaningful way in the development of persons prepared to accept positive and constructive roles in a democratic society.

Certainly, the Urban Education Committee does not presume to question the ratings given by the State's urban educators. The committee is well aware of the fact that pupil learning—the core of which is content mastery—is the result of many influences, some of which, although of crucial importance, are beyond the control of the school. Nevertheless, it seems appropriate for educators to ask this crucial question: "Are we doing all that can be reasonably expected of us in our teaching efforts?" More than this can hardly be expected.

Learning and Instructional Materials

This dimension of the curriculum is far more tangible than are some of the others. It has to do with books, paper, crayola, rulers, and equipment of various kinds—in short, the *tools* of learning. Perhaps it

is safe to say that the urban-metropolitan schools of Missouri are reasonably well off relative to learning materials. Certainly, no district official has pointed to a significant absence of essential learning materials for pupils. Similarly, no significant complaints were raised relative to instructional materials.

Evaluation Materials and Techniques

It has been suggested, with reason, that progress in any endeavor requires periodic assessment and evaluation of goal achievements and goal-seeking processes. Certainly, then, these activities are an essential dimension of curriculum. Thus, it would seem that to the extent evaluation is inadequate either in kind or in frequency in the teaching-learning process, an important aspect of curriculum is unsatisfactory. Several questions relating to evaluation, then, seem to be in order. Among these questions, the following seem crucial:

1. Are there valid assessment instruments in use in Missouri schools?
2. Are the techniques for the use of these instruments also valid and are they used uniformly?
3. Is the assessment process identical with evaluation as conceptualized in Missouri schools, or is this process seen as but one aspect of overall evaluation?
4. What factors in addition to test scores enter into pupil learning evaluation?
5. How are pupil grades arrived at and for what purposes are they used?
6. How are the results of pupil evaluation reported? To whom? For what purposes?

To the extent that school districts can answer these questions adequately might well be the extent to which the curriculum dimension is a source of problems. That there will be different points of view relative to what is the "right" answer to these questions is an indication of the degree to which the areas considered are, indeed, curriculum issues.

It is interesting to note from the responses from urban school districts to the questionnaire that the curriculum, taken as a whole, ranked fourth among the eight identified school problem areas. As will be readily seen in the summary of these responses in Chapter IV of this document, school districts in urban Missouri appear to feel they are experiencing considerable difficulty in all of the curriculum dimensions we have cited and are in need of assistance.

Summary

In summary, we should note that curriculum, although herein defined as the learning environment controlled by the school, ranked fourth, behind financial, legislative, and teacher concerns by Missouri urban educators. We note then that the problems of financing a school, with concomitant problems in legislative and teacher relations, limit the schools' opportunities to improve curriculum.

However, when considering curriculum, Missouri urban educators show essentially the same concerns

which are noted nationwide; namely, the need for quality education; concerns with students' relation to self, peers, and authority; and the need to provide teachers' help in changing their methodology toward a more individualized situation. This survey does not indicate whether this is a reaction to public pressure or is a priority knowledge by Missouri educators. However, the development of programs to combat the problems does show that Missouri urban educators are looking to themselves to solve problems. This use of local personnel to implement programs is highly desirable and, with the careful monitoring of programs, it would be hoped that successful innovations would receive wide publicity within the state and the nation.

Residents of urban areas of Missouri will be reassured to note that their educators are aware of curriculum problems but, more important, that their schools are constantly developing alternatives in an attempt to upgrade the quality of education provided in the urban schools in Missouri.

Finally, our position might be stated as follows: Despite the fact that different economic groups and different ethnic and racial groups have a variety of modes of life, in a society based on a commitment to personal freedom and human dignity such pluralism is tolerated and encouraged. Many of the most important personal decisions each of us makes, however, are contingent upon the conduct of other groups within society which may have different interests and different standards of conduct from ours. This is a source of constant conflict and controversy. When the conflicts become salient for large segments of society, they move from the realm of private decision to public decision, because the government is the only agency which has sufficient coercive power to deal with such far-reaching issues. When a decision becomes public, all the citizens are involved directly or indirectly, and each citizen has a stake in the conflict. To debate public issues requires common standards, common principles of ethical and political conduct, and a common vocabulary of norms. Western civilization in general, and America in particular, has developed such standards to serve as a basic vocabulary for the debate of public issues. They include concepts such as property rights, free speech, freedom of religion, freedom of personal association and privacy, rejection of violence, and faith in reason as a method of dealing with conflict, the general welfare of all, equal opportunity, equal protection under the law, rule of law or constitutional limits on government, rule by consent of the governed, due process of law, separation of powers, and local control of local problems.

Committing ourselves to public conflict and political controversy as the focus of general education in the social studies is, however, only the first step in selecting content. One must specify what the student is to do with the content once he has received it. The intellectual process, the acceptable standards of analysis by which the student is actively to relate the content to his own principles of conduct, and the

criteria for defining when content is "understood" must be described.

First, however, an extremely important point must be clarified. There is, we believe, an intimate connection between the way one conceptualizes the nature and structure of societal values and the process by which one clarifies an ethical position. Whether one conceives of liberty, equality, and fraternity, for example, as each demanding equal allegiance from the citizen or as placed in a hierarchical order makes a fundamental difference in the way one uses them to justify his position on a particular controversial issue.

Recommendations

1. Urban-metropolitan districts as well as school districts throughout the State of Missouri should provide in-service workshops on:
 - a. The practical meaning and dimensions of the curriculum.
 - b. Techniques of formulating teaching and learning goals in terms of expected learner skills and abilities (behaviors).
 - c. Strategies and materials for individualizing instruction.
 - d. Innovative models for pupil grouping in order to promote social development while simultaneously facilitating pupil learning at their individual readiness levels.
 - e. The rationale of grades—what they indicate and why they are given.
 - f. Making the learning experience basically pleasant and captivating.
 - g. Identifying the characteristics—learning goals expressed as a collection of behaviors—of the effective and productive citizen in a democratic society.
2. School districts should conduct curriculum conferences in which crucial issues relating to the seven curriculum dimensions cited in this chapter are thoroughly discussed, leading to a general consensus and plans of action that can be implemented in the classroom.

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CHAPTER VIII

TEACHER-RELATED CONCERNS

The role of today's teacher is dramatically different from that of the teacher a generation ago. The era of student deference to teacher authority is gone; disrespect and outright violence—popularly associated with "inner city" classrooms—in fact, are found in all parts of Missouri's metropolitan areas. Both physically and psychically, teaching has become an exhausting occupation. Gone, too, are the days when teachers passively accepted absurdly low salaries, and when they were content to allow administrators and lay boards to set educational policies unilaterally. Today's teachers expect and demand improved salaries and benefits, improved working conditions, and the right to participate in decisions affecting their professional work. These new expectations and demands are particularly evident in Missouri's urban areas, where teacher militancy and collective action are far more evident than in outstate areas.

Despite these changes, however, the teacher remains the principal point of contact between students and their schools. Even where supplemented by specialists in counseling, social work, nutrition, health, evaluation, and testing, the classroom teacher still is the keystone connecting the student and the society's schools and is frequently called upon to serve in all these roles. Although arguments about the precise nature and conditions of effective teaching persist, and while some may be outraged by teacher militancy or by the seeming inability of teachers to "make kids learn," no one has yet invented a device which outperforms the teacher in delivering the services expected of our urban schools.

Perhaps it was this dual recognition—on the one hand that the teachers' role is changing to educating the "total person," not just one with basic academic skills, and on the other hand that the teachers' significance remains undiminished—which accounts for the fact that "Teachers" ranked after "Finance" and "Legislation" among the problems confronting those school administrators who responded to the Urban Education Questionnaire. Succeeding sections comment upon some specific concerns about teachers.

Teacher Accountability

In December, 1976, the Missouri Governor's Conference on Education addressed itself to several educational matters including accountability. The conference produced a number of recommendations for local district action and for State Board of Education action. These include development of an accountability management system and implementation of a communication system on a local district level. On the State Board level, the conference recommended

providing technical assistance to implement an accountability management system for school districts, revising and strengthening the school rating system, and accelerating the implementation of a uniform financial accounting system.

Teachers, through their professional organizations, have voiced major objections to the call to "teacher accountability." They insist that teacher accountability is valid only within the framework of fully funded school programs, adequately provided with materials and support systems necessary to pupil achievement and success. Adequate teaching conditions are said to include:

1. Properly equipped classrooms.
2. Limitations on class size.
3. Realistic teaching schedules.
4. Relief from clerical and other nonteaching assignments.
5. Availability of specialist teachers, counselors, child psychologists, staffed libraries and other supportive personnel.

In addition, for teacher accountability to be meaningful rather than merely punitive, there needs to be full teacher participation in selection of textbooks and materials as well as in curriculum planning and revision. Further, for teachers to be effective, school systems need to offer a diversity of educational programs for students, including trade, technical and business education, arts and sciences, and special education programs for pupils who have specific interests and special needs. In sum, teachers insist that they cannot and should not be held accountable for conditions and factors over which they have no control and which affect the success of their students.

There is another, and quite different, source of teachers' resistance to the idea of "teacher accountability." The problem is that accountability, in practice, tends to depend rather heavily upon standardized tests. Such tests are viewed with dismay. They are seen as "culture bound," overly dependent on verbal indicators of learning, and discriminatory against children of minority cultures and children who are economically poor. Criticism of the tests also focuses on the inadequacy of such tests to assess many important educational goals, the misuse of test results, lack of understanding of the statistical procedures used, and the overtesting of children. Often, the time required for testing displaces more important educational activities. In addition, the use of standardized tests as accountability devices may lead teachers to "teach to the test"—at the expense of other, untested school goals.

Obviously, there is a dilemma here. The public and the patrons of the schools justifiably demand accountability; society's human and financial stake in the outcomes of schooling is so enormous that

educators simply cannot continue to depend upon rhetoric and outmoded surrogate indicators of "quality" as devices for demonstrating the significance of schooling. But the teachers have a valid argument too: if they cannot control the conditions which are deemed to affect the outcomes of their work, and if the measures of those outcomes are primitive and untrustworthy, it is mischievous to demand "teacher accountability." Recognition of this dilemma brings the first recommendation:

We must seek improved means for assessing the outcomes of teaching, and we must seek new ways for involving teachers in the determination of their working conditions if the quest for teacher accountability is to move from the level of rhetoric to that of reality.

Classroom Control and Management

Many students feel a sense of alienation and hostility toward school. This is expressed in antisocial behavior. To the degree that students feel some control over their own lives and educational experiences, they are likely to behave cooperatively. On the other hand, to the degree that students feel oppressed by meaningless rules and regulations and irrelevant classroom experience, they will act out their hostility in destructive ways. The educational community needs to work toward the goal of every student enjoying success in a secure and caring atmosphere. Responsibility for dealing with this problem must be shared by teachers, specialists, administrators, and parents. The goal should be an orderly, cooperative climate in schools so that student behavior problems are minimal. Issues of class size, staffing, administrative support of teachers, teacher roles, adequacy of facilities and parental support will need to be dealt with. To achieve this goal, it is recommended that:

Teachers, students, parents, and administrators should work together to develop policies and procedures which are based upon a concept of shared responsibility for student behavior problems. This shared responsibility involves both the causes and the treatment of behavior problems. Old practices of blame-placing and buck-passing are inadequate and even counterproductive. There are no panaceas. As the sources of the problem transcend the school and its employees, so must the solutions.

Improving Teacher Skills

Although teaching remains, in many respects, a form of art, there are an increasing number of areas where a "science of teaching" is emerging, and where opportunities for the improvement of teacher skills can and should be provided.

1. Pupil Diagnosis and Assessment

One such area is that of improving teacher skill in pupil diagnosis and assessment. One traditional form is standardized testing. More and more, standardized

tests are used from preschool through high school. The results of these tests may determine pupil placement in the school, progress through the grades, and acceptance into specific educational programs. Yet teachers often are not knowledgeable about the nature and the processes of standardized testing. Such tests are seen as the province of counselors, psychologists, and administrators. Teachers need to have more information about the nature, purposes, and utilization of the tests they administer, and they should participate in decisions about the timing and conditions of testing.

New modes of pupil assessment, now coming into use, need to be stressed and developed. Observation, informally or through the use of audio or video technology, is a useful tool. Many teachers keep logs or journals, noting pupil progress. Students also can learn to keep journals in which they record work done and their reflections on their own accomplishments. Samples of work in various curriculum areas, compiled over periods of time, provide realistic bases for judging student progress and evidence which can be shared with pupils, parents, and other teachers. Students can be taught the skills and strategies of group and self-evaluation. Peer evaluation can teach pupils to be critical, supportive, and helpful to each other. These and other new modes of assessment are valuable because they can focus on all areas of the curriculum and can be closely related to ongoing instruction and experiences. They can foster self-awareness and self-directed learning.

2. Techniques for Meeting Student Heterogeneity

Another area where a science of teaching is beginning to emerge is very timely for urban educators, who are faced with population mobility and heterogeneity on an unprecedented scale. There is a growing array of techniques designed to help teachers learn to work with learners whose ethnic/cultural/socioeconomic backgrounds differ from those of their teachers.

As urban growth took place in America, cities became more and more multi-ethnic and included more working class and poor people. Schools were viewed by many as the institution which would provide assimilation, Americanization, and economic upward mobility. Some educators and educational historians (from Horace Mann through Ellwood Cubberly, Lawrence Cremin, etc.) have propounded a rhetoric purporting public education to be the successful "equalizer." Their goal has been assimilation symbolized by the "melting pot" metaphor. But other educators and historians including Henry Perkinson, Kenneth Clark, Bernard Watson, Colin Greer, etc., have contended that there is a great disparity between the rhetoric and the actual intent and achievement of the schools. They hold that the schools reflect and perpetuate the economic, social and political inequalities of the larger society. In

addition, they point out, pluralism may be a virtue which should be preserved.

In urban school systems, teachers and administrators have been more educated and affluent than the families from which their students come. These educators often reflect values, attitudes and lifestyles of the dominant culture which may often be in conflict with those of minority group students. Consequently, there may be superficial or paternalistic attention paid to the cultural and ethnic backgrounds of students. School districts need to provide teachers with the material, resources, and training to deal in depth with these matters. Teachers also need to be allowed to have many points of view presented to their students. But primarily, there needs to be commitment by boards of education, administrators and teachers to deal honestly with inequalities and discrimination inherent in our society and our classrooms.

The realization of democratic schools includes acceptance and valuing of ethnic pluralism rather than conformity to the dominant cultural standards and values. It also includes valuing diverse lifestyles and behaviors.

In school settings where there is mutual respect and acceptance of individuals, supportive cooperation, and a valuing of differences, there are fewer conflicts. In such environments, ethnic, cultural and socioeconomic differences are not problems but, rather, these differences enrich the educational experiences of teachers and students and promote learning.

Along these lines, take note of the fact that today, nearly a quarter of a century after *Brown v. Board of Education*, both of Missouri's major metropolitan areas are involved in desegregation litigation. If desegregation is to take place effectively and peacefully, it is imperative that provisions be made to help newly desegregated students relate to each other, and to help the teachers themselves relate to students from backgrounds unlike those of the teachers.

There are other areas where professional development programs are in order, but perhaps enough has been said to justify this recommendation:

Incentives and programs providing for the continued professional growth of teachers are essential if teachers are to take advantage of new pedagogical knowledge and if they are to learn how to cope with new problems and opportunities.

Teacher Militancy

Particularly in metropolitan areas, and to an increasing extent in outstate areas, teachers are acting collectively and militantly. Such action has many origins and many objectives. Improvements in salaries and working conditions are principal forces propelling collective action. Teachers no longer accept the image or the reality of the "schoolmarm" or "schoolmaster" content to accept servants' wages, and they no longer believe that collective action and

professionalism are incompatible. Consequently, collective action on behalf of improved salaries and benefits has become common in Missouri despite the absence of legislation authorizing or regulating such action. Collective action also is being used to gain a more active role in determining working conditions and setting educational policies and procedures. These include areas such as textbook selection and class size determination as well as procedures for managing conflicts over academic and professional freedoms and responsibilities.

In addition to their demand for participation at the district level, teachers are endeavoring to exercise more control over the conditions under which individuals are prepared for, and admitted into, the teaching profession. Current activities include efforts to develop improved teacher education programs for urban schools, and to reform certification standards so as to assure that teachers are employed only upon evidence that they are equipped to do their job. The recommendation regarding teacher militancy and collective action is a simple one:

Accept collective action and increased professional self-determination by teachers as inevitable, and develop policies and procedures designed to capitalize on the potential of such action for the improvement of Missouri's schools.

Other Voices

In concluding this section, it should be noted that the Committee's questionnaire was compiled primarily by administrators, and was sent to administrators, not teachers. It is not known whether a committee composed primarily of urban teachers would have constructed the same questionnaire; nor is it known whether respondents composed primarily of urban teachers would have responded in the same way as the survey respondents. There are doubts on both points. In an effort to check the Committee's perceptions, leaders of the major teacher organizations in Missouri were contacted, and they kindly responded to the Committee's request for input. These respondents are in substantial agreement about the nature of the problems of teachers discussed above. In addition, however, some of them identify lack of administrative support as a major problem. Some of them also point to issues like legislative inaction and inadequate funding which are dealt with in other sections of this publication.

Specifically, a Chapter president of the American Federation of Teachers ranked his concerns as follows:

1. Increased teacher demands (militancy) for roles in:
 - a. Decision-making process
 - b. Resolution of school problems
2. Administrative support
3. Classroom control and management
4. Working with learners from different ethnic/cultural/socioeconomic backgrounds
5. Provisions for means of identifying the keys to successful teaching

6. Improving teacher skill in pupil assessment
7. Teacher-community relationships
8. Multiple concerns—in no particular order
 - a. Conflict of teacher (school) values or attitudes with those of students
 - b. Updating teacher competence in instruction
 - c. Provisions for helping teachers meet the growing demand for accountability
 - d. Provisions for pre-service and in-service training
 - e. Broadening professional opportunities at teacher-training institutions
 - f. After school and extracurricular demands upon teachers
 - g. Teacher apathy.

The Executive Secretary of MNEA did not respond directly to the specific items contained in the instrument, submitting instead the following list of concerns in descending order:

1. Discipline/violence
2. Overcrowded classrooms
3. Lack of administrative support and consistency in decision making
4. Insufficient resources of other professional personnel (e.g., counselors, psychiatrists, social workers, fine arts personnel, etc.)
5. Lack of teacher input and involvement in decision making
6. More involvement in course offerings and curriculum
7. Collective bargaining
8. Due process.

The Executive Secretary of MSTA identified the following concerns in no particular order:

1. Updating teacher competence in instruction
2. Increased teacher demands for roles in:
 - a. Decision-making process
 - b. Resolution of school problems
3. Provisions for means of identifying the keys to successful teaching
4. Provisions for pre-service and in-service training
5. Classroom control and management
6. Broadening professional opportunities at teacher-training institutions
7. Teacher-community relationships
8. Teacher apathy
9. Salaries
10. Class size.

Finally, an officer for the Federation of Teachers listed the problem areas in this order:

1. Public apathy
2. Legislative indifference
3. Antiquated funding methods
4. Inadequate school boards
5. Court decisions and actions
6. Administration
7. Desegregation/integration
8. Teachers.

While there are more similarities than differences of concerns, and solutions to those concerns, between administrators and teacher representatives, the differences, the misunderstandings, and the rhetoric which sometimes conceal areas of agreement bring us to our final recommendation:

Develop formulas and procedures where the views of teacher groups, school patrons, school administrators, and school boards can be aired, shared, compared, and, finally, reconciled in a manner which permits the forward movement of the educational enterprise.

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CHAPTER IX

COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT AND RELATED ISSUES

School officials from Missouri urban districts ranked community-related problems in the following order of priority.

1. Community lack of understanding of school programs and problems.
2. Conflict of community values or attitudes with those of pupils and school.
3. Population trends.
4. Community demand to be involved in school decisions.
5. Inadequate acceptance on part of community of responsibility for school-age children.
6. Utilization of school buildings.
7. Impact of politics and special interest groups.
8. Community indifference and hostility.
9. Economic status of the community.
10. Difficulties arising from housing patterns.
11. Inadequate coordination of social services.

Historical Background

In a review of community involvement in the schools, two major questions emerge: What is the nature and extent of citizen participation desired by the public, and how much citizen participation do professional educators want? There are times when the public desires to become vigorously involved in school decisions; for example, in determining policy in regard to controversial textbooks. In many other areas the desire for direct citizen involvement seems nonexistent. Educators, on the other hand, tend to seek intently the extensive participation of citizens only when there is a need to pass a tax or bond election. Conversely, when citizens do not seek extensive involvement with school activities, they are often regarded by school officials as apathetic. On the other hand, when educators do not solicit citizen participation, parents frequently claim that educators want the community involved only to obtain additional financial resources.

Historically, American public education developed in an atmosphere and tradition of citizen concern. Schools were controlled traditionally on a local basis by lay people. Lay citizens hired teachers, built schools, determined the curriculum, and supervised the educational process. With the development of large urban centers, public school bureaucracies developed. One of the strong criticisms directed toward school bureaucracies during the last two decades is that this form of organization insulates schools from community involvement.

Possibly as a direct result of this criticism, there have been numerous attempts to increase community involvement in the school, including decision making regarding school policies. This involvement is partially a result of a renewed interest on the part of

parents to have a voice in the educational process of their children, and partially a result of efforts of school officials and teachers to generate such involvement. Another motivation very probably has been a concern by the public to specify how their tax money should be spent in the schools. Still a third motivating force has been state and federal agencies which have required schools to utilize parent and citizen involvement as a prerequisite for receiving federal funds.

Community Lack of Understanding of School Problems

Urban school districts in Missouri rated community lack of understanding of school programs and problems as the highest concern in the area of community involvement. Obviously, this perception is a highly controversial one. Some educators would propose that the public is not interested in learning about schools and will not take the time to become aware of the various school issues. Others just as strongly suggest that even interested parents, who do participate in school activities, cannot really understand school programs and problems because they are not on the daily "firing line" and cannot possibly have the insights necessary to such an understanding.

From a rather widespread lay citizen view of the issue, it is argued that the schools do not have any more problems than existed in past years. Furthermore, many laymen would argue that numerous problems are the result of incompetency of school staff and are thus largely within the school people's normal sphere of control.

Given the two polar views mentioned above, there is an indisputable fact that the schools are encountering an increasing number of difficulties including financial, student discipline, security, legal and personnel issues. In most cases, as citizens have become involved in the schools and have observed in depth the daily operations of the schools, they have tended to become more understanding of the various issues facing the schools. Furthermore, there is evidence that positive change often occurs when citizens understand school problems and programs that are attempting to meet many of these problems.

Studies have demonstrated that the public *does* want to participate in public school policy development. Furthermore, citizens who serve on public school committees usually become more eager to participate in policy development than citizens who have not served. As advisory committees function, school administrators usually have experienced improved public relations, more effective communication with the public, and increased interest in education.

Multiple Expectations for Students and Schools

The respondents to the survey constructed by the Urban Education Committee ranked as second and seventh in order of priority: Conflict of community values or attitudes with those of pupils and school, and impact of pressure groups. These two issues share a common theme of diverse and sometimes contradictory expectations being exerted upon the schools. American public education has great diversity among school districts. This is natural since our organization permits local control of education by individual districts that vary in size from less than 100 students to districts with over 100,000 students. As there is variation in community values between districts, there is also variation within districts.

It is not unusual to have conflicting expectations of parents within the same district. Some may want strict discipline in student behavior while another group wants an open and flexible code of conduct. In the area of instruction, this variation in expectation is most evident in the recent trend toward alternative schools. Some parents have sought "fundamental schools" or "academies" where strict dress, homework, and discipline codes are emphasized. Other parents have sought "free" schools where very flexible academic and behavioral codes are in operation.

One of the most obvious areas of diversity in community values is in the area of student discipline. During the last few years, parents have consistently listed discipline as an area in which the schools could make considerable improvement. At the same time, the last decade has witnessed a national concern for due process of student rights, with resulting court decisions that influence the manner in which schools resolve discipline problems.

Since the schools, as public institutions, must serve the interests of the local school community, it is difficult to achieve a consensus, or sometimes even a majority opinion, as to the type of expectations that schools should establish for students. Urban school districts, with their large enrollments, especially have this diversity of expectations, resulting in numerous conflicts as to programs and objectives. It is not unusual to find groups wanting more "rigor" in instruction while other groups are greatly concerned about students "failing" because they are not interested in college preparatory programs.

Many parents feel that violence is a serious problem and that students who participate in such activities should be removed from the school. At the same time, others insist that no student should be removed from school, and quickly point out the legal obligations of school districts to provide a public education for all students.

These conflicts or variations in expectations of the schools have often been expressed most eloquently through special interest and political groups. School administrators spend considerable time listening

and responding to these groups which have readily, and sometimes quite strongly, expressed their opinions about needed changes in the schools. Chambers of Commerce, American Civil Liberties Union, National PTA, League of Women Voters, and other national and local organizations all express their desires and demands to the schools.

Population Trends

School district respondents in Missouri ranked population trends third in order of priority. Chapter III of this document reviewed population trends in the urban areas of Missouri. Therefore, this chapter will not go into detail with respect to this phenomenon. It is perhaps sufficient to remind the reader that the rapid decline in birthrate, along with other demographic changes, has led to major declines in school enrollment. These declines have necessitated difficult decisions pertaining to retention of staff, consolidation of school districts, and closing of underused school buildings. Secondly, the population trends in urban areas have tended to result in increased socioeconomic homogeneity of students in inner city and suburban districts.

Community Demand to be Involved in School Decisions

The topic listed as number four in order of priority was community demand to be involved in school decisions. This trend is not one unique to education. Rather it is present in many facets of American society. The late 1960's and early 1970's reflected this concern by individuals to participate in the group decision-making process. The decentralization movement of the early 1970's clearly reflected this trend. As noted in an earlier section, there have been several forces that contributed to the strengthening of this concept.

In order to involve members of the community, school districts have tended to establish numerous advisory groups. Frequently, individuals appointed as advisors are not satisfied with this role and insist, instead, on making the decisions themselves.

With the diverse groups and interests found in urban areas, it frequently is difficult to achieve consensus or even obtain a majority view from advisory groups. Furthermore, urban administrators are required to spend an increasing amount of time with advisory groups.

Inadequate Acceptance on Part of Community of Responsibility for School-Age Children

The fifth-ranked problem was inadequate acceptance on the part of the community of responsibility for school-age children. During the late 1960's and the 1970's, there has been a trend to place the blame

for student deficiencies and failures strictly on the alleged shortcomings of the educational establishment. Educators have been compared to physicians and other scientists in the physical disciplines and are generally expected to solve all ills and problems of students and parents. As a result, educators have been appealing for the cooperation of home and community to work as partners in the process of instruction.

As parents have abandoned an increasing amount of responsibility for the social and emotional development of children, the school has been expected to fill the void. Educators are increasingly expected to "baby-sit," feed, counsel, teach moral behavior, and provide health services for students. This trend occurs also in nonurban areas. The heavy concentrations of poverty and other societal problems in urban areas, however, increase the severity of this problem for urban educators.

Utilization of School Buildings

The utilization of school buildings was rated as the sixth priority by school districts responding to the questionnaire. There are several dimensions involved in the topic. One of the most controversial issues in recent years has been the operation of schools on a 12-month calendar. With enrollment declines, this movement has lost much of its support. It is still, however, a topic of debate on a national and local basis. Proponents emphasize that school should be scheduled on a 12-month calendar basis. Opponents point to scheduling problems regarding vacations for families and problems of old buildings that cannot be air-conditioned.

Probably a more pressing issue to Missouri urban districts is the use of school buildings for adult education and community education activities in the late afternoons and evenings. Here the problem for most urban districts is one of finances. School districts have experienced severe financial "belt-tightening" during the last decade. Under such circumstances there is a reluctance to allocate scarce instructional funds for community education or recreational programs. Usually such programs are forced to operate on a fee or tuition basis.

The most pressing element of building utilization at the present time is unquestionably the issue of closing school buildings because of enrollment decline. Most parents and community leaders view closing of a school when enrollment declines as a logical and economical decision. However, when the particular building to be closed is in their neighborhood, there often is extreme reluctance or even strong opposition to such action. With the large enrollment declines of the last decade, school districts are increasingly faced with the issue of closing school buildings. If the buildings to be closed are old, then the decision is more acceptable to parents. However, if the schools to be closed are relatively new buildings, parents are most opposed to closing them.

Furthermore, school districts face another problem in the closing of facilities that are relatively new buildings: how to make effective use out of a public building that is no longer needed as the type of facility for which it was built.

Many urban districts in Missouri have experienced considerable population shifts within and out of districts during the last few years. This condition, along with a decline in birthrate, has resulted in complex conditions regarding utilization of facilities. It is not uncommon for large urban districts to have school attendance areas that are overcrowded and at the same time have attendance areas in which schools could be closed because of population shifts. Such districts are faced with the paradox of simultaneously operating buildings above maximum capacity, at capacity, and below capacity. Reporting urban districts show most school buildings at student capacity. The range for buildings used above capacity is 10% to 100%, with underutilized buildings reflecting an even greater disparity range of 2% to 100%. Eighty-seven percent of the buildings reported closed are at the elementary level, yet 83% of the buildings rented are also elementary buildings. This paradox is indicative of shifting housing patterns and deteriorating neighborhood communities. Underused buildings reflect high operating costs, and overused buildings result in high maintenance costs. Both extremes result in ineffective educational programs.

Community Indifference and Hostility

The eighth-ranked item was community indifference and hostility. These two conditions, while ranked relatively low among all the community problems, can be highly demoralizing factors to school administrators when they do occur. One of the most dramatic examples of community indifference to the schools in poor urban areas is the tendency of parents and other voters to deny adequate funds to schools through the rejection of tax and bond levies. This pattern is obviously a mixed one, as several urban districts do have adequate financial resources both from the wealth of their tax base and voter approval of tax increases. In those urban communities where voters have refused to pass tax increases, motivation for such reluctance is multifaceted. For many senior citizens who are on fixed incomes, school programs must take second priority in comparison to keeping taxes at the status quo. Many adults who do not have children in the public schools, and thereby do not receive a direct benefit from public education, are not convinced of the direct importance of schools to a community.

One of the frequent examples of indifference is the unconcern among many affluent districts for the special needs that occur in low-income districts. This same type of indifference does occur within districts where there are both affluent and low-income neighborhoods.

While some patterns of indifference have occurred in school communities for many years, the frequent and open hostility of recent vintage is a severe demoralizing factor to educators. Schools are often the "whipping boy" for many organizations and groups. Poverty programs, low voter participation in elections, unemployment, racial discrimination, declining scholastic aptitude test scores, juvenile delinquency, student violence, and increasing school budgets have received the hostile comments of many critics of the schools. In addition, these critics have described administrators and teachers as incompetent and self-serving individuals who do not deserve the confidence of the public. During the last two decades some critics have stated that the schools do not make any impact on the lives of the students. A few have claimed that in poor urban areas the schools have indeed perpetuated the cycle of poverty. Other critics have argued that the school as an institution is not capable of changing the lives of students. Still others have argued that the school has the capability of improving the lives of children, but has failed to do so because of incompetent administrators and teachers. These hostile attacks have focused chiefly on urban centers.

Economic Status of the Community

Respondents to the questionnaire rated economic status of the community as the ninth order of priority of community problems. The chapter in this document on finances points out that considerable variation in economic status exists among urban districts in Missouri. The tax base per student will range from approximately \$14,000 to over \$75,000 among urban districts; and the family median income varies from approximately \$7,250 to \$21,200.

Economic status of a community is a variable that the schools are virtually powerless to change on any immediate basis. Almost all of the other problems described in this chapter pertain to concerns upon which the schools can have a direct impact. The schools, however, cannot improve employment in a community or increase the salaries of residents except for the small proportion who work directly for the school system.

For those communities with a low tax base and low family income, it is extremely difficult, if not impossible, to provide high quality educational programs. These districts have students with unique educational and social needs and, consequently, should have additional services, both educational and social. It is ironical that districts with the greatest needs have the lowest local resources available for meeting their needs. Furthermore, urban deterioration in impoverished districts results in a continuing decline of the tax base. The process becomes a distressing cycle in which, as needs become greater, there is a decrease in resources available to meet these needs. In some urban districts more than half of the students are eligible for free lunches

and/or are residents of homes receiving public assistance. With this poverty there often is frequent mobility of students within and out of the school district. Such mobility creates a climate whereby it is difficult for the students to develop pride, commitment, and identity with the schools.

Difficulties Arising From Housing Patterns

Difficulties arising from housing patterns were ranked as the tenth order of priority. Four subtopics were included: segregation, resegregation, busing and underuse of school buildings. The first three subtopics are covered at length in another chapter; underuse of school buildings was reviewed in an earlier section of this chapter.

Inadequate Coordination of Social Services

Inadequate coordination of social services was ranked as the last priority. The importance of social services to urban school districts varies according to the economic status of the school district. For those districts with high percentages of low income students, the existence and efficiency of social services is a key ingredient as to potential success of the student in school. Services in the areas of housing, welfare, social work, employment, and health are required for impoverished families. Usually, these services are provided by the state and municipal governments. Too often parents and communities have asked the schools to provide many of the above services when they were not provided by other sources. With this request, educators have emphasized that schools should be institutions that focus on student learning and not be dispensers of social services. Because of abdication or limitation of services in these areas, urban schools have increased their provisions of services in fields of health and social work. Despite this increase, the social services provided by the schools do not begin to satisfy the needs of poor families living in urban areas. Assistance in securing employment, ongoing health services for parents and all family members, provisions of housing, and social work assistance are services that become necessities for impoverished urban families. For a child who has a desperate need in one of these areas, services must be available if the child is to function at school and in the community. When the school experiences difficulty in securing these services for the child, either because of their unavailability or inefficiency in presentation, the educational progress of the student will be impeded.

Recommendations—Summation

Following are recommendations pertaining to community involvement:

- A. Communities and schools should establish procedures for broad citizen input into decision making.
- B. Obviously the role of the community as a source of facts and advice, rather than decision maker, should perhaps be clarified. In addition, consensus should be reached as to school goals and priorities.
- C. Each group should be accountable for actions. School officials should provide leadership in this area.
- D. Plans should be developed for disseminating information on a regular basis.
- E. Priorities should be agreed upon and resources allocated to meet the priorities.
- F. Each program added to the school day should be evaluated in terms of impact on reaching school objectives rather than political or social significance.
- G. Community and schools should make a commitment to coordinate their efforts to provide quality educational services for all children.
- H. Communities should make a commitment to adequately provide social and health services necessary to enable children to achieve in school.

In summary, it should be noted that both the community and school are dependent upon one another. They are *not* individual entities which can operate in isolation. In major urban centers, schools and communities must work cooperatively together in order to survive.

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CHAPTER X

ADMINISTRATIVE CONCERNS

During the last two decades, many articles, books, and addresses have spoken to the issue involved in the administration of public schools. All have pointedly referred to the changing roles for administrators, societal factors that impinge on the tasks of administration, and the complexities of community desires regarding educational programs.

In order to identify administrator concerns in the urban school districts of Missouri, a questionnaire designed by the Urban Education Committee, was distributed by the Division of Urban and Teacher Education, Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, to thirty-nine metropolitan school systems. The questionnaire listed fourteen topics or issues that have been identified in national literature as key administrative problems. The school districts were requested to rate each of these fourteen items as being of "immediate concern," "possible future concern," or "no concern."

Responses of Missouri Urban Districts

The two administrator problems that were most frequently reported as being of "immediate concern" were bureaucracy (federal, state, and local) and student discipline. Staff evaluation, teacher rights and responsibilities, and building security were the next most frequently rated as of "immediate concern." All of the forestated problem areas were designated by over half of the urban districts as of "immediate concern."

The following areas were rated as "immediate concern" by fewer than one-half of the districts: student rights; teacher relationships in instruction, discipline, evaluation, and responses to special interest groups; administrative rights and responsibilities; management of physical facilities; and conflict between educational leadership and educational management.

In some districts, the questionnaire was completed by an administrator in the superintendent's office; in others, by a researcher and, in others, by different administrators in the school system. Consequently, the responses do not represent a view from any one specific level of school administration, nor do they represent a comprehensive view of *all* administrators.

Bureaucracy

Organizational theorists have long referred to the operational efficiencies that can result from a bureaucracy when vast numbers of clients must be served. On the other hand, others have frequently referred to the deficiencies of bureaucracies—

including waste of effort, removal of decision makers from operational levels, and slowness of response and change. Urban districts are frequently large and thereby have more levels of bureaucratic structure than small districts. Furthermore, urban districts have increasing involvement with state and federal agencies. The continued need for assistance from state and federal agencies by the urban schools will only increase the bureaucratic structure. The demise of urban areas as independent financial entities requires increasing help from other sources, and these sources are bureaus. If help is needed, then, whatever the requisites, the urban school systems must comply.

School administrators have complained about the amount of extra paperwork and the limited decision making that occur as outside agencies become involved with the local district. State and federal agencies emphasize that guidelines must be observed and that compliance must be documented. School system administrators must, therefore, spend an increasing amount of time complying with the demands of the bureaucracy.

The Learner

Three of the problem areas focus specifically on the learner: discipline, student rights and security. Discipline received the second highest number of responses as being of "immediate concern." This issue is not limited to urban districts. Discipline is, however, a sensitive topic for urban schools. National reports of assaults, homicides and theft have resulted in the exaggerated view that urban schools, in general, are centers where chaos reigns on a daily basis. Any person associated with urban schools realizes that the "jungles" often portrayed by the sensationalists do not exist; however, incidents of serious disruption do occur in some urban schools. The administrator of the school is faced with resolving serious problems that do include assault, theft and verbal abuse. These disruptive acts by students are perhaps reflective of general societal conditions. The school administrator has the responsibility of providing the best learning opportunities, and, for students who interrupt the educational process, he has to see that they receive due process of their rights. He has the responsibility of counseling those whose misbehavior is not of a serious nature. At the same time, the administrator has the duty to provide an orderly environment for teachers and students.

Compounding the problem of student discipline is the issue of student rights. One element of the student rights movement that has been irritating to schools is a tendency for the more militant students to challenge virtually all aspects of school operation

and, frequently, to threaten or to seek litigation. Also, there is the problem of parents frequently making legal challenges whenever school decisions do not meet their approval. The result is that school administrators spend an increasing amount of time responding to lawsuits. Court litigation has been frustrating and time-consuming for many administrators.

Related to student discipline and student rights is the problem of school security—another issue which has received national attention. Congress has investigated the problem. School systems spend vast amounts of resources to provide security. Vandalism, theft, trespassing, and assault remain as major issues of security. Students and outsiders contribute to the problem.

The safety and welfare of the staff and student body must be assured before education can begin. The degree to which security is an administrative problem depends largely on several factors: the location of the school, the number of students involved, and the attitude of the community. Fortunately, staff, students, and parents do, indeed, want a school that is safe; they want rules; they want rules enforced; and they expect penalties to be inflicted upon violators. In most large city urban settings, professional security measures are required. Security guards are stationed in buildings. While teachers may help with security, it must be remembered that teachers are not hired as guards, police officers, or keepers of the peace. The teachers can and will provide assistance and some will go beyond the call of duty in this respect; however, staff and students cannot be expected to be guards. Not only does this demand drain personal energy, but it also creates a sense of anxiety on the part of administrators regarding the personal security of staff, students and the care for property in the building.

School and Community

In many, if not most, urban areas, community-school relationships are at a new low. Each school has its nucleus of strong, loyal parents who will "bend their backs" to serve the needs of the school. Each year fewer urban residents have children enrolled in school. Dwindling numbers of parents are active in the PTA's and other supportive parental organizations. A primary concern of the urban community is that taxes not be raised. The school is sometimes viewed as the source and purveyor of inequity, academic ineffectiveness, and student violence. The press in urban areas may have contributed to this image. Maintaining good community-school relationships is a difficult challenge for school administrators.

Teaching Staff

Three problem areas pertain to teachers: staff evaluation; teacher rights and responsibilities; and

teacher relationships in instruction, discipline, evaluation and responses to special interest groups. Staff evaluation has received extensive national publicity. The press, school boards and many others in our society emphasize that, in order to achieve accountability, we must have a more objective appraisal of school activities, student achievement and staff performance. Management by objectives, competency-based performance and other innovations have been proposed as achieving more objective appraisal. Some teachers have perceived such efforts not as an aid but as a threat to tenure and to annual performance review. Teachers have increasingly questioned evaluations by administrators. At the same time, teacher organizations have sought and won rights and tenure.

The administrator often feels caught between two opposing forces. On the one hand, the public calls for more rigid and objective evaluations; on the other, the teaching staff is increasingly sensitive to currently proposed forms of evaluations and objects to recent aspects of the accountability movement.

The movement of teachers to achieve more rights and employment benefits affects elements of school operation other than evaluation. For several years administrators have emphasized that trends in teacher agreements with boards of education have tended to diminish the control and decision making of administrators in operating school systems. The typical complaint is that at the bargaining table teacher groups have made the gains and administrators have sustained losses of responsibility and authority. Perhaps the most effective action of teacher organizations has occurred in urban areas.

For many administrators, changes in definitions of teacher responsibilities and rights have not posed problems. Others, who do not respond easily to change, find the changes difficult. Furthermore, in some districts, there are still scars from bitter strikes, other job actions, or disputes between teachers and the administration.

A third problem item was teacher relationships in instruction, discipline, evaluation and responses to special interest groups. The key factor is that these relationships have changed through recent negotiation efforts between teacher groups and boards of education. Trends indicate that changes will continue to occur and that they will occur with greater momentum in urban areas.

As stated earlier, the problem of school administrators is that they are placed between two opposing interests. The public wants greater accountability and more service; teacher groups have asked that their professional duties be more narrowly defined, that more objective evaluations be rejected, and that more time be provided for staff development and planning.

Management of the School Building

Nine districts found management of physical facilities to be of immediate concern. There is a great

variation among the urban districts in Missouri in regard to financial resources. Several urban districts have adequate new buildings and substantial operational resources from local taxes; other districts foresee problems in future years as facilities age, and some have immediate problems of deteriorating buildings.

For the districts with deteriorating facilities, this problem is serious. Administrators are forced to live with less than adequate conditions since bond issues to finance major improvements require a two-thirds voter approval. Gaining a two-thirds majority vote has become a virtual impossibility for both operational levies and bond issues.

Status and Responsibility of the Administrator

Five of the problem areas related specifically to the role and responsibilities of the administrator.

Conflict between educational leadership and educational management is an issue that confronts administrators. The question is posed: "Are school administrators really decision makers or are they merely carrying out the decisions made by others?" The climate of our current era, however, is one that finds an increasing number of interests converging on the school program and seeking to intrude on decisions previously made by school administrators. Parents, community groups, students, attorneys, board members, the courts, and teachers seek to have their voices heard. All claim that they should have a voice in determining the educational process and that it should not be determined only by administrators.

While the voices of vested interest groups appear in all school districts, urban areas have become the focus where numerous groups impinge upon the schools. Teacher groups have exerted most of their efforts in urban areas; the most serious problems of discipline and security may occur in the cities; various citizen groups bring their diverse interests to bear on urban schools; and sometimes the courts have become the focus of decision making in cities.

The problem of administrators' rights and responsibilities has been a concern of administrators as far back as the nineteenth century. The issue has received increasing attention as teacher groups and other factions of the community have won new rights from school boards. Administrators, especially those in urban areas, have claimed that parts of their responsibilities and authority have been eroded. The concern has led school administrators in at least one urban area to establish an administrator union for the express purpose of defining and securing their rights and responsibilities. Associated with the effort to establish administrator unions has been a questioning of the effectiveness of organizational structures of administrative staff. School administrators have expressed concern that administrative decisions frequently are made at administrative levels far removed from the school operation.

Two main elements are involved in this issue of organizational structure of administrative staff. There is obviously the element of centralized versus decentralized decision making and leadership. Also, there is the situation whereby existing decentralized decision making of school administrators becomes diminished as more decisions are made by forces outside the school.

The convergence of many demands and expectations on the school's naturally raises questions as to what expectations can reasonably be made of educators. The trend for urban education has been one in which administrators are forced to spend increasing amounts of time on noninstructional management and leadership. This occurs at a time when the public is expressing alarm over alleged decline of academic achievement by students.

Recommendations

Solutions to these concerns are elusive. Bureaucracy needs to be seriously scrutinized with the purpose of unbinding red tape from the schools. Although equitable assistance and integrity of implementation are to be desired, they must not, and probably cannot, be achieved through an overly burdensome and stifling bureaucracy. When bigness within districts and within schools results in inefficiency, ways of avoiding the consequences of bigness must be sought.

There is little dispute about the importance of good discipline. Schools must acknowledge lack of discipline as a problem. They should not respond angrily, punitively and repressively. Standards and expectations can be broadly developed and understood. A firm adherence to them, buttressed by suspension and expulsion when necessary, should be assumed. The school and the community need to be basically together in their approach. The achievement of good discipline calls for alternatives in educational possibilities, for variety and quality in teaching, for involvement of students, and for the realization that gaining good discipline is everyone's business.

A positive, multipronged pursuit of good discipline respects students' rights and assures due process. Yet respect for due process in the schools cannot be accompanied by the presence of a full-fledged law enforcement and judiciary system. Nor can the authority of the school be maintained if disciplinary procedures and processes are frequently contested for the sake of opposing schools.

While schools may be reluctant to take steps necessary to insure school security, safety and order are prerequisites. The appropriate formula may not be quite the same in any two schools—ranging from periodic supervision by building administrators to occasional assistance by all staff members to paid security guards and juvenile officers.

The issue of school-community relationships is not solely the responsibility of the school, but the school can make its mark. Printed and personal

contacts by clerical, teaching, and administrative staff with parents should occur frequently for the purpose of communicating about the educational welfare of students. School administrators, knowing that success will be qualified, should try to get laypersons into the schools for a number of reasons.

Staff evaluation must be more than going through the motions. Evaluation is clearly an administrative responsibility. Establishing evaluation criteria may directly or indirectly involve teachers, organizations, students, and laypersons, but the criteria finally reflect what district leadership thinks is important. In saying what is important, administrators should be discerning enough that weak teachers and strong teachers can be identified. Having reached these conclusions, administrators should share them with the persons evaluated. One should measure what can be measured and is worth measuring, evaluate what he/she believes in, and apply the best measure.

The school has few choices in how it manages physical facilities. If more than a minimal level of effort is maintained, it must be at the expense of instruction, the real purpose of education. The scarcity of resources does not excuse mismanagement and inefficient use of these resources, but lowering the two-thirds majority approval of bond issues will provide the necessary resources for a responsible

level of maintenance of physical facilities.

In the larger schools, the building administrator can hardly be both an effective educational leader and a manager. In fact, it appears that responsibilities must be clearly delineated, allowing assistants to do most of the "managing" while the principal is the leader of instruction, or vice versa.

Obviously these recommendations are not exhaustive. At best they suggest that some positive steps are possible.

Suggested Readings

- Warren Bennis, *The Unconscious Conspiracy* (New York: AMACOM, 1976).
- Roald F. Campbell, L. Cunningham, Raphael O. Nystrand, and Michael D. Usdan, *The Organization and Control of American Schools* (Columbus, Ohio: Merrill, 1975).
- Larry Cuban, *Urban School Chiefs Under Fire* (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1976).
- Luvern L. Cunningham, Walter G. Hock, and Raphael O. Ystrand (eds.) *Education Administration* (Berkeley, California: McCutchan, 1977).
- Luvern L. Cunningham and William J. Gephhardt (eds.) *Leadership: The Science and the Art Today* (Itasca, Illinois: F. E. Peacock Publishers, Inc., 1973).
- Donald A. Erickson (eds.) *Educational Organization and Administration* (Berkeley, California: McCutchan, 1977).
- John C. Hogan, *The Schools, the Courts and the Public Interests* (Lexington, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath, 1974).

CHAPTER XI

ISSUES IN SCHOOL DESEGREGATION-INTEGRATION

The legal basis for racially segregated schools was removed in 1954 by the historic decision of the U.S. Supreme Court (*Brown vs. Topeka*). Nevertheless, several state constitutions, including that of Missouri, did not remove their provisions for dual school systems based solely on race until much later—although the racial restrictions, in fact, no longer had legal basis after 1954. Thus, while statutory or constitutionally imposed racial segregation is no longer permitted, one might think otherwise if he/she were to examine the statistical racial makeup of the public school systems in Missouri because racial minority students are still largely concentrated within a number of school districts in the metropolitan areas.

In this chapter on desegregation, we shall look at the urban areas of the State of Missouri and the extent of desegregation within these areas. The urban divisions are broken down into the subsets which follow:

1. St. Louis Metropolitan Area School Districts
 - a. City of St. Louis School Districts
 - b. St. Louis County School Districts
2. Kansas City Metropolitan Area
 - a. Kansas City School District
 - b. Selected school districts from suburban Jackson

and Platte Counties

3. Grouped Collective School Districts
 - a. Springfield School District
 - b. St. Joseph School District
 - c. Columbia School District
 - d. Joplin School District

We have chosen to group the Springfield, St. Joseph, Columbia, and Joplin School Districts together because of their similar racial composition and because their collective student population is less than 50,000 students.

The variables being considered under the geographical division cited above are based on data submitted by 31 school districts in the state on survey instruments on urban education prepared, distributed, and collected by the Division of Urban Education of the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education. The St. Louis Metropolitan area is the largest metropolitan area in the State of Missouri and, according to our survey, includes 240,255 students in the public school in that area. For the purpose of a clear examination of the school districts, as they relate to segregation and desegregation, districts are grouped in the sets which follow:

Table 25
MINORITY STUDENT POPULATION
METROPOLITAN ST. LOUIS

Minority Students Percentage	No. of Districts Included	Total School Population	Total Minority Student Population
70% or Higher	1	82,980	58,915
50% - 69%	2	15,219	9,710
30% - 49%	0	0	0
10% - 29%	6	42,044	7,957
Less than 10%	11	100,012	3,958
	20	240,255	80,540

The minority student population of the surveyed districts is 80,540 (33.3%), and 73% of the minority students are in districts where the total district's minority student population is in excess of 70%; 12% of the minority students are in districts with student population of 50%-69% minority; 0% of the minority students are in a district with student population of 30%-49% minority—in fact, there is no district in the St. Louis Area with that student composition; 9.88% of the minority students are in districts with student population of 10%-29% minority and 3.96% of the minority students are in districts with student population of less than 10% minority.

A major factor affecting desegregation of those schools surveyed in the Metropolitan St. Louis Area is that approximately 85% of the minority students attend schools with a minority student enrollment; whereas, approximately 40% of the white students attend schools with minority enrollments of less than 10%. In fact, the overall minority composition of districts with less than 10% minority students is 3.96%. Regardless of the reasons of causes for the lack of desegregation, and many could be provided, it must be recognized that for all practical purposes, school districts in the Metropolitan St. Louis Area, at most, have very limited racial integration.

The Kansas City Metropolitan Area is the second largest population base in the State of Missouri, and, according to our survey, included 101,347 students. These 101,000 plus students are from six districts in the Metropolitan Area, with four of the six districts being similar; therefore, for the purpose of examination for this study, there are three groups: one with a minority student population greater than 60%; another with a minority student population of between 20 and 30%; and a final group encompassing four districts with a minority student population of less than 10%.

The minority student population of the surveyed

districts is 35,256 (34.8%), and 89.9% of the minority students are in one school district where the total district minority population is in excess of 60%; 7.3% of the minority students are in a district where student minority population is between 20%-30%; and 48% of the minority students are in districts where the minority student population is less than 10%. In fact, the total minority student percentage in the latter districts is 3.7%. Desegregation in the Metropolitan Kansas City Area is even less than in the Metropolitan St. Louis Area, as nearly 90% of the minority students in the area attend a minority school district. Again, in the Metropolitan Kansas City Area—as in the Metropolitan St. Louis Area—the evidence is clear on the lack of desegregation, as almost nine out of every ten minority students in the Metropolitan Area attend a school district in which the minority student population is almost 65%.

Although it was originally intended to report on five metropolitan-urban areas, it was decided, as noted earlier, to group four of them (St. Joseph, Springfield, Columbia, and Joplin) together because they share similar characteristics as they relate to desegregation.

The range of the minority student population in the above urban school districts was from 3.15% to 13%, and the composite percent for the four surveyed school districts was 4.7%. It appears that in the other urban school districts outside of the St. Louis and Kansas City Areas minority students constitute a very small percentage (4.7%) and they (the minority students) are not concentrated in isolated districts as they are in the St. Louis and Kansas City Metropolitan Areas. It must be mentioned that there exists the possibility that the minority students might be concentrated in single schools in the reporting districts, but the survey instrument does not provide data on a school-by-school basis.

TABLE 26
MINORITY STUDENT POPULATION
METROPOLITAN KANSAS CITY

Minority Students Percentage	No. of Districts Included	Total School Population	Total Minority Student Population
60% or Greater	1	49,214	31,699
20% - 30%	1	6,486	1,881
Less than 10%	4	45,647	1,676
	6	101,347	35,256

TABLE 27
MINORITY STUDENT POPULATION
ST. JOSEPH, SPRINGFIELD, COLUMBIA, & JOPLIN SCHOOL DISTRICTS

Minority Racial Composition of the District	No. of Districts Included	Total School Population	Total Minority Student Population
Less than 10%	4	53,168	2,502

As previously demonstrated in this chapter, racial minority students, for the most part, attend minority school districts; therefore, this section of the chapter on the state of desegregation in Missouri examines the minority and majority school districts for similarities and differences related to education. The variables to be considered are the following:

1. Dropout Rate
2. Personnel:
 - a. Racial Makeup
 - b. Teacher-Pupil Ratio
3. Revenue:
 - a. Amount
 - b. Source
4. Perceptions of Major Urban Problems
5. Concerns about Segregation.

Dropout rate for the reporting districts (24) is 5.0% and the range for the dropout rate among minority students in the urban centers is from a low of 1.6% to a high of 12.4%. The range of the majority students is from a low of 2.4% to a high of 6%; the range for the total student population is from a low of 2.6% (the rate for St. Louis was ignored because student population was not inclusive of grades 7-12) to a high of 6%. Examination of the data in Table 28 shows minority students in all the reporting districts by category have a higher dropout rate than white students, and the highest minority dropout rates (12.4% and 7.9%) are in districts with less than 10% minority population and in a minority school district (6.1%). No clear pattern on dropout rates is evidenced other than that minority students appear more prone to dropout than white students.

TABLE 28
DROPOUT RATE IN METROPOLITAN AREAS

	Minority Student Percentage	Minority Dropout Rate (Percentage)	White Dropout Rate (Percentage)	Total Dropout Rate (Percentage)
City-St. Louis	71	No Report	No Report	15.4 ³
Metro-St. Louis	50-69	2.9	2.4	2.7
Metro-St. Louis	10-29	1.6 ⁵	No Report	3.1 ⁶
Metro-St. Louis	Less than 10	No Report	No Report	2.6 ⁴
Kansas City	65	6.1	6.0	6.0
Metro-Kansas City	20-29	No Report	No Report	No Report
Metro-Kansas City	Less than 10	12.4 ²	3.2 ²	3.6 ²
Other Urban Areas	Less than 10	7.9 ¹	4	5.2 ²

¹Only 1 of 4 Districts reported.

²Only 3 of 4 Districts reported.

³District has very few Junior High Schools.

⁴Only 10 of 11 Districts reported.

⁵Only 2 of 6 Districts reported.

⁶Only 5 of 6 Districts reported.

We have already shown in this chapter that upwards of 90% (Kansas City Metropolitan Area) of the minority children in an urban setting in Missouri attend school in a minority school district. Exami-

nation of the employed personnel in our state urban schools illustrates even more markedly that desegregation, in fact, has not occurred and the data demonstrating this nondesegregation are the following:

TABLE 29
RACIAL COMPOSITION OF EMPLOYED PERSONNEL
IN METROPOLITAN AREAS

	Student Body Minority Racial Composition	Admin. % Racial Maj.-Min.	Teachers % Racial Maj.-Min.	Other Staff % Racial Maj.-Min.
Metro. St. Louis	70% or Greater	40.8 - 59.2	41.6 - 58.4	53.7 - 46.3
Metro. St. Louis	50% - 60%	76.3 - 23.7	76 - 24	71.3 - 28.7
Metro. St. Louis	10% - 29%	90.1 - 9.9	90.3 - 9.7	93.8 - 6.2
Metro. St. Louis*	Less 10%	98 - 1	97.3 - 2.7	99 - 1
Metro. Kansas City	60% or Greater	53.3 - 46.7	54.5 - 45.5	40 - 60
Metro. Kansas City	20% - 30%	100 - 0	98.8 - 1.2	100 - 0
Metro. Kansas City	Less 10%	98.3 - 1.7	99.4 - .6	97.1 - 2.9
Other Metro. Areas	Less 10%	97.8 - 2.2	97.9 - 2.1	97 - 3

*Only 8 of the 11 Districts reported racial composition of personnel.

Metropolitan St. Louis

In the Metropolitan St. Louis Area, the percentages of racial minority school administrators range from 1% to 59.2%; the percentages of racial minority teachers range from 2.7% to 58.4%; and the percentages of other racial minority school personnel range from 1 to 46.3%. Analysis of the data leads one to a number of conclusions, some of which are the following:

1. Minority school personnel are primarily in school districts with high minority student population.
2. Minority school personnel percentage employed by districts is less than the minority student percentage in all categories.
3. The percent of minority administration personnel and minority teaching personnel are almost in a ratio of 1:1 in the different districts.

Metropolitan Kansas City

In Metropolitan Kansas City, the percentages of minority school administrators range from 0% to 46.7%; the percentages of minority teachers range from .6% to 45.5%; and the percentages of other minority school personnel range from 0% to 60%. Analysis of the data as they relate to the Kansas City Area leads to similar conclusions as those for St. Louis, but even more conclusively that racial minority

school personnel are in racial minority school systems and they are not equal in proportion to the minority school population of the school district.

The Other Metropolitan Areas

In the other Metropolitan Areas of the state (grouped collectively), less than 3% of the school personnel is racial minority and the almost 1:1 ratio of the different classifications of school personnel remains consistent.

State of Missouri

Statewide conclusions on the racial composition of school personnel are the following:

1. Racial minority school personnel primarily work in districts with high racial minority student personnel but not in equal proportion to racial minority student population.
2. The ratio of the different classifications of racial minority school personnel is approximately 1:1:1 (Administrator:Teacher:Other School Personnel).
3. The state of desegregation for school personnel is less than the state of desegregation for the student population.
4. Many white students will have little, if any, contact with either minority school personnel or minority students during their schooling.

TABLE 30
PUPIL-TEACHER RATIO IN THE METROPOLITAN AREAS

	Minority Student Percentage	Elementary Schools Pupil-Teacher Ratio	Secondary Schools Pupil-Teacher Ratio
City of St. Louis	71%	30.0:1	29.0:1
Metro. St. Louis	50-69%	24.0:1	21.2:1
Metro. St. Louis	10-29%	22.8:1	21.1:1
Metro. St. Louis	Less 10%	21.7:1	19.9:1
Kansas City	65%	29.0:1	26.0:1
Metro. Kansas City	20-29%	26.0:1	28.0:1
Metro. Kansas City	Less 10%	24.1:1	24.7:1
Other Urban Areas	Less 10%	25.0:1	24.6:1

One of the factors to be considered in the quality of education surely is teacher-pupil ratio; thus, an examination of teacher-pupil ratio was conducted in context with the racial composition of the school districts and the results are the following:

1. The highest pupil-teacher ratio in the surveyed school districts are in the two largest minority school districts.
2. The lowest pupil-teacher ratio in the surveyed school districts are in the school districts which have the lowest minority student population.
3. Metropolitan St. Louis, excluding the City of St. Louis, has the lowest pupil-teacher ratio of all the surveyed school districts.
4. The range of the surveyed school districts relative to pupil-teacher ratio at the elementary school level was 18:1 to 30:1; at the secondary level, the range of the pupil-teacher ratio was 18:1 to 29:1.

Urban school districts in the State of Missouri are not unlike other urban school districts in our country where the overall academic achievement levels of students in primarily minority school districts is less than those for students attending white school districts. Therefore, if achievement can be improved through a lower teacher-pupil ratio, it would seem the equitable posture is to have a lower teacher-pupil ratio in the two largest school districts, but, in urban Missouri School Districts, we have the converse.

The logical conclusion, accepting the teacher-pupil ratio as being an integral variable to achievement, is that racial minority students who are presently behind in achievement are being asked to use "go-carts" to compete with racial majority school district children who are using "Mercedes" in the race for greater achievement. It is here again in Missouri, as well as nationwide, that our system of public education demonstrates how inequitable it is in reality.

Funding for the Metropolitan Areas' Schools

There are a number of factors which contribute to

quality schools for students and, surely, all lists would include adequate financing. Therefore, data from the surveyed districts were used to analyze and determine differences in the amount and sources of income for the reporting districts.

Examination of the surveyed districts relative to financing and the racial composition of their school yielded the results which follow:

Federal Funds

1. Federal funds for the urban school districts in the selected categories range from 3.0% (\$39) of the district's budget per student to 18.5% (\$223*) of the district's budget per student.
2. The two largest minority school districts receive both the greatest percentage (15.5% and 18.4%) and the greatest amount (\$247 and \$223) of Federal funds per student.
3. Per pupil, the smallest percentages (3.0% and 4.5%) and smallest amount (\$39 and \$53) are received by school districts with the smallest minority population.

*18.4% is the highest percentage, but \$247 is the greatest amount.

State Funds

1. State funds for the urban districts in the selected categories range from 23.4% (\$307) of the district's budget per student to 43.2% (\$508) of the district's budget per student.
2. Majority school districts with lowest minority student population receive both the greatest (43.2% - \$508) and the smallest (23.4% - \$307) percent and amount of their budget from the state per student.

Local Funds

1. Local funds for the urban school districts in the selected categories range from 48.9% (\$594) of the district's budget per student to 73.6% (\$966*) of the district's budget per student.
2. In the Metropolitan St. Louis Area, the largest minority school districts receive the smallest

TABLE 31
EXPENDITURE PER PUPIL - 1975-1976 SCHOOL YEAR
IN URBAN-METROPOLITAN AREAS

	Racial Minority Percentage of District	Federal Revenue-Percent	State Revenue-Percent	Local Revenue-Percent	Per Pupil Expenditure TOTAL
City of St. Louis*	71%	\$233 (18.4)	\$397 (32.7)	\$ 594 (48.9)	\$1214
Metro. St. Louis*	50-69%	95 (7.0)	327 (24.0)	940 (69.0)	1362
Metro. St. Louis**	10-29%	115 (7.0)	430 (26.2)	1095 (66.8)	1640
Metro. St. Louis	Less than 10%	39 (3.0)	307 (23.4)	966 (73.6)	1312
Kansas City	65%	247 (15.5)	397 (24.9)	950 (59.6)	1594
Metro. Kansas City	20-29%	55 (4.6)	406 (31.2)	727 (61.2)	1188
Metro. Kansas City	Less than 10%	53 (4.5)	508 (43.2)	615 (52.3)	1175
Other Urban Areas	Less than 10%	83 (7.2)	446 (38.7)	623 (54.1)	1152

*1974-1975 School Year

**Includes Special School District

amount (\$594) of the school districts in that metropolitan area while in the Metropolitan Kansas City Area, the minority school district receives the greatest amount (\$950) of the school districts in its metropolitan area.

*73.6% is the highest percentage, but \$1,095 is the greatest amount.

Overall Funds

1. The range of all funds for the urban districts by selected categories is from an amount of \$1,152 to an amount of \$1,640.
2. In the Metropolitan St. Louis Area, the largest minority school district has the smallest amount (\$1,214 per student) of funds available for education, while, in the Metropolitan Kansas City Area, the minority school district has the largest amount (\$1,594 per student) of funds available for education.

Conclusions

1. There is a great disparity in the funds available for education in the urban school districts by the selected categories, with the difference between the lowest per pupil expenditure and the highest per pupil expenditure being equal to \$488. Surely, this difference demonstrates some inequities in the present system of funding education in the urban districts, but it is not solely based on the racial composition of the schools, as the metropolitan areas which have the largest minority school districts fund their school districts at both the greatest and lowest amounts in their geographical area.
2. The largest minority school districts are the greatest beneficiaries of the federal funding of school systems and this dependence provides the potential for major problems in the future if federal funds are reduced or terminated.
3. On a statewide basis, the percentage of funding for the urban school districts is:
 - a. 8.6% Federal Funds
 - b. 30.2% State Funds
 - c. 61.2% Local Funds

The nationwide average for funding of schools is 7% federal; 43% state, and 50% local; so it is clear that the local school districts in urban areas of Missouri are being required to shoulder a burden much in excess of the national average on the funding of their school systems.

Desegregation/Integration Issues

The next section of this chapter deals with the surveyed school districts' perceptions of what the concerns are in their districts as they relate to desegregation/integration. It should be noted, however, that when all of the 26 surveyed districts were asked to rank in order the problem areas in the state, they ranked desegregation/integration as number seven out of eight listed problem areas. The only area ranked below desegregation/integration of the eight listed problems areas was administrative problems. This might seem surprising to some, but one must realize that 18 of the 26 surveyed districts have racial minority school populations of less than 10% and

many of the 18 districts have minority populations of less than 3%.

Desegregation/Integration Issue in School Districts With Minimal Minority School Population

The racial minority school districts and other districts in the Metropolitan St. Louis Area do and do not report that the desegregation/integration issue is of significant concern to them. The districts with significant racial minority student populations indicate that they face some major problems in the future as they attempt to bring about desegregation/integration in their schools. The differences as perceived by the districts with a significant minority student population when compared with the districts with minimal minority population is startling and demonstrates that many districts do not see interdistrict desegregation in the near future and, therefore, are not at all concerned with the desegregation/integration issue.

The districts with minimal minority school populations nearly universally report that they have no immediate concern with the problems which might occur in a desegregated school system with a significant minority population. These districts are probably feeling comfortable with the present Detroit and Indianapolis court cases and, if there is no further Federal Court action mandating interdistrict desegregation plans, they will continue to have minimal concerns about desegregation. It is obvious that they see desegregation as a problem relating to only a few select districts and do not want to get involved in the issue. Five of the districts seem to support the noninvolvement theory inasmuch as they did not even respond to the questions in the survey on desegregation/integration.

Desegregation/Integration Issue in School Districts With Significant Minority School Population

The school districts in our survey with racial minority student populations of 10%-29% do not show a consensus in their perceptions of problems related to the desegregation/integration issue. They indicate that their districts are immediately concerned about neighborhood schools, effects of desegregation on school curriculum, achievement, discipline, community reaction to desegregation, the move from familiar school environments to unfamiliar ones, and the availability of resources and agencies in their community to support desegregation. They indicate their districts have limited concern about court orders and open housing and about transportation of pupils for desegregation.

It might be surmised that these districts have desegregated their schools, face no immediate court actions on desegregation, and are not immediately concerned about a further influx of racial minority

population. Therefore, they are most concerned with maintaining stability and quality in their schools so as to keep their community happy. These districts, as well as the districts with minimal racial minority population, probably believe that the bus line will continue to stop at the boundary of the central core city school district.

The two smallest minority school districts (53%-69% minority population) and the two largest (60% minority and 70% minority) are nearly unanimous in their immediate concern about problems related to desegregation. They are the districts most immediately impacted by desegregation and are bearing the brunt of the efforts to desegregate the school system while they are, in fact, minority school districts. These districts express immediate concerns in the area of neighborhood schools, busing, community reaction to desegregation, legal and political implications, curriculum, achievement and discipline, and the availability and utilization of community resources and agencies as they work to desegregate their schools. Although there is state legislation regarding the desegregation of public schools, the enforcement of these laws is done primarily by the Federal Government. Many of the districts that have experienced going through the desegregation process see very little support and aid from neighboring school districts. Therefore, their task seems overwhelming—if not impossible.

Summary of Chapter on Desegregation/Integration

The intent in this chapter was to examine the state of desegregation/integration in the State of Missouri in the context of 26 selected school districts in the urban centers of Missouri. Our findings clearly demonstrate that Missouri, like many other states, has only limited desegregation since greater than 90% of the minority students attend school in minority school districts and the staff composition of the school districts generally reflects the racial makeup of the school districts. In all cases their racial minority staff composition is proportionally less than the racial minority student population. Our study finds that minority students are concentrated in the center city school districts which have the highest pupil-teacher ratio, and that the districts with the smallest percentage of minority students have the lowest pupil-teacher ratio.

The dropout rate is the highest in the two largest minority school districts and, where districts provided data, we find that minority students have a higher dropout rate than white students. Many districts, for reasons yet undetermined, were reluctant to provide dropout rate data.

There is quite a disparity in the total expenditure per pupil in the surveyed school districts, and the percentage of revenue provided by local, state, and federal governments varies significantly. The two largest racial minority school districts received the

greatest amount of federal funds, but there is a great difference in the total amount of money available, with one district near the top in per pupil expenditure and the other near the bottom in expenditure per pupil. Overall, in the surveyed school districts, we find that the percentage of the local share of expenditure is much greater than the national average for the local expenditure, while the state percentage of expenditure is much lower than the national percentage average for the state.

Earlier in this chapter it was stated that a discussion of desegregation/integration in the State of Missouri as it related to the urban districts should properly be defined as a lack of desegregation/integration. Our findings, based upon the data provided by the surveyed districts, support that statement. The schools in Missouri are no longer statutory or constitutionally segregated, but, for the most part, there is little question that they are segregated and the probability is that they will become increasingly more so, with the minority school districts having an even greater percentage of minority students if no state or federal action arises to provide inter-district desegregation.

Recommendations

We have already spoken to the difficulty which is now encountered by persons seeking to cross school district lines to bring about significant, meaningful desegregation because of the present posture of the United States Supreme Court. That is, the plaintiffs must show both intent and culpability on the part of suburban districts in order to involve them in the remedy. Regardless of whether inter-district desegregation is required or not in the future, opportunities exist for voluntary desegregation involving central city and suburban schools. The Committee is in accord with the State Superintendent of Schools in Illinois, Joseph Cronin, and endorses a model designed by him. The model, somewhat modified for Missouri, would incorporate the following:

1. Establishment of broad-based planning committees in each metropolitan area to evaluate the prospects for metropolitan desegregation.
2. Research into long-term housing, financial, racial, and educational trends in Missouri.
3. Priorities so that middle-class suburbs with space available are encouraged to establish pilot programs for education of big-city students in their schools while other suburban school districts watch and evaluate.
4. Agreements with athletic leagues and community centers that students from other communities shall be treated on an equal basis as hometown students eligible for sports and other competition.
5. Provisions for suburban student participation in a wide array of specialized magnet city programs without diminution of opportunities for city youth.
6. A state law to establish the necessary incentive aid to enable suburban and city school districts to welcome out-of-district students to vacant seats

and classrooms without penalizing the home school district of the pupil.

7. A plan for quality integrated education which includes an equitable selection of student volunteer participants (not just the gifted), teacher retaining, human relations training, and revisions of the curriculum.
8. A companion plan to upgrade urban education to encourage families to locate in new or rehabilitated areas with a choice of good schools. Also, as minority enrollments begin to decline, the poorest of the city schools should be closed both to economize and achieve desegregation.
9. More stringent enforcement of fair-housing and fair-employment laws.
10. Interdistrict plans for professional personnel in the city and suburban districts to work in out-of-district schools, so as to provide them with opportunities to work in different socio-racial-economic settings.

The quality of education in all of our schools needs to be reexamined, and we are of the opinion that, as a result of the reassessment, significant changes will be recommended and great opportunities will exist for us to achieve two goals: improving the quality of

instruction while desegregating the school systems. It is through cooperative education plans of big city school districts and the suburban school districts that we have the greatest chance for improving education for all of our students.

Suggested Readings

Cronin, Joseph, *Integrated Education, City School Desegregation and the Creative Uses of Enrollment Decline*, Vol. 15, #1, Jan.-Feb. 1977.

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CHAPTER XII

SCHOOL LEGISLATION CONCERNS AND RECENT ACTIONS BY THE MISSOURI STATE LEGISLATURE

The public schools of America exist through the constitutions and legislative acts of the separate fifty states. Local communities are given broad and wide authority in matters of education—to raise revenues through local taxation based on property values, to set up governing school boards, and to establish curricula. This arrangement has existed with public acceptance despite inequalities of varying kinds and degrees.

The spiraling inflation and frequent cycles of economic recession in recent years have resulted in conditions under which inequities as well as educational costs in general seem to be outdistancing the ability and/or the willingness of local citizens to meet them. Hence, increasing demands for aid are being made first upon the state legislatures and ultimately upon the federal government itself. The State of Missouri has not been immune to these increasing demands which, of course, require either constitutional changes or significant legislative action.

This chapter shall first consider the concerns of urban school district administrators relative to current legislative and state constitutional provisions for public elementary and secondary schools—particularly as these provisions affect the fiscal

well-being of their schools. Next, this chapter will review briefly the most recent actions and enactments of the Missouri Legislature in its endeavor to grapple with the complex problem of school financing. Interspersed throughout the chapter will be a number of suggestions and recommendations which are offered as a stimulus for serious thought, planning, and ultimate action.

School Districts' School Legislation Concerns

Urban school district administrators throughout Missouri ranked school legislation a concern of highest priority. Many problems these districts face seem to have their solutions dependent upon some change in the state law. Most are financial, resulting in one way or another from stringencies or limitations imposed by state laws upon public elementary and secondary schools throughout the state in general, and upon such schools serving the urban centers in particular.

Below is a partial list of those concerns which urban school district administrators especially see as

requiring state legislative action either immediately or in the very near future:

1. The mandated six-hour school day.
2. The requirement for 174 days of attendance and of the 180-day school year as bases for state aid.
3. The requirement of a two-thirds majority for the passage of bonds and school tax levies exceeding the \$3.75 per \$100 assessed valuation.
4. The reassessment of real property.
5. The current allocation provided by the school foundation formula.
6. Retirement benefits provided by the current state program.
7. Federal guidelines and controls accompanying federal grants.
8. Professional negotiation (collective bargaining)?

1. Relative To The Six-Hour Mandated School Day In Attendance Laws

Of the 31 urban school districts that responded to the Urban Education Committee's questionnaire, 21 saw this area as needing serious attention—some districts regard it as of immediate urgency, others saw it as of real concern in the future. Many urban school districts feel they have a unique problem as they attempt to meet in-service and staff development needs and also comply with the six-hour mandated day. Flexibility to modify the school day would give urban educators the opportunity to develop innovative learning and in-service activities. Moreover, such flexibility would enable school districts to deal more effectively with the problem of school days lost through inclement weather.

Another problem identified related to the provision that state aid is allocated on the basis of student attendance rather than on enrollment. This problem bears heavily upon urban districts with large numbers of low income children who frequently have great difficulty in attending school during severe weather conditions.

It should be noted that urban school districts are not asking that the state require children in the cities to attend school less often. Instead the districts want allocations for the School Foundation Fund to be based on enrollment rather than on attendance. House Bill 131 (1977) spoke to this issue and provided that membership and average daily attendance be considered equally in the allocation of monies through the state school foundation formula.

2. Relative To The Two-Thirds Vote Requirement

All 31 urban school districts saw this area as one of immediate concern. The two-thirds majority vote requirement negatively affects the school districts on both a short- and long-term basis. The brief examples given below illustrate that negative effect.

- a. School districts in need of new buildings and/or the renovation of existing facilities are, in increasing numbers, finding it next to impossible to muster a two-thirds majority vote in favor of bonds that would finance these long-term projects.
- b. On a short-term basis, school districts seeking ap-

proval of levies in excess of \$3.75 per \$100 of assessed valuation are finding it equally hard, if not impossible, to get a two-thirds majority vote for such increases—in spite of all-out campaign efforts, setting forth before the voters the urgent need for the increase.

- c. The issues surrounding the two-thirds majority requirement are hotly contested and defended. Those who would abolish this requirement see it as a blatant violation of the one-man one-vote concept so basic in a democracy. To them, one vote for a particular proposal counts less than one vote *against* that proposal.

Obviously, if the districts cannot secure additional local revenues, a major source of financial support for public schools becomes inadequate. Moreover, to the degree that the inability to approve additional local revenue varies with the will of local communities throughout the state, it follows that existing inequalities in educational opportunities afforded the children of the state are increasing. Urban school districts whose tax bases are eroding are in increasingly dire financial straits.

In the light of this concern, one can hardly wonder at the increasing demands being made of the state legislature by school district administrators for a repeal of the two-thirds vote requirement.

3. Relative To Property Reassessment

Approximately 52% of the dollars available to school districts throughout Missouri come from the local property tax. Moreover, property wealth is the primary measure by which state funds are distributed to local school districts. Realizing that the property tax is fundamental to the school financial support, over 600 delegates to the Governor's Conference on Education made specific recommendations to improve Missouri's present law.

Thirty of the 31 school districts responding to the Urban Education Committee's questionnaire saw property reassessment as of immediate urgency. While the current law requires that property be appraised at *full market value* and assessed at one-third of that amount, in practice neither of these two requirements is uniformly applied across the State. The result is great inequity in school revenues irrespective of locally-levied school taxes.

4. Relative To The School Foundation Formula For The Allocation Of State Aid And The Use Of Other Sources Of State Funding

Almost every one of the 30 responding school districts saw this area as a problem of immediate concern. Since, under the formula, assessed valuation per pupil is used as a measure of local ability to support schools, gross variations among the school districts in their ability to raise school revenues become obvious.

The Educational Finance Report produced by the 1976 Missouri Governor's Conference is an excellent source of information on this topic.

5. Relative To Retirement Benefits

A concern of certified personnel of the public

schools of Missouri is the benefits of their retirement plans and the necessity of keeping up with the inflation factors.

6. Relative To Federal Controls

Twenty-four of the 28 districts which responded to this item on the Urban Education Committee questionnaire saw federal guidelines and controls connected with federal grants as a problem of immediate concern.

School district administrators are among the first to recognize that federal grants have made valuable contributions to education, particularly in innovative programs and a variety of options not otherwise feasible. Administrators, however, are beginning to give voice to the realization that these gifts have too many "strings tied to them." There is a growing number of complaints about the administrative demands in the form of mountains of paperwork, duplication of data collection, and excessive regulations. School administrators in increasing numbers are concluding that the negative aspects of the federal role in education overshadow its positive benefits.

7. Relative to Professional Negotiations

Teacher organizations throughout Missouri as well as the nation have become increasingly strong and are pressing for legal recognition as the bargaining agent for their members. Missouri law does not permit boards of education to enter into negotiations with these organizations relative to wages, work hours, fringe benefits, and other terms and conditions of employment.

Recommendations That Seem to Flow From School Administrators' View of Their School Legislation Problems and Concerns

On the basis of the responses of urban school district administrators to the Urban Education Committee's 1975-76 questionnaire, the following outline seems to summarize their recommendations for legislative action:

1. That appropriate action be taken by the state legislature to replace the two-thirds majority now required for the passage of tax levy proposals of over \$3.75 per \$100 assessed valuation with a simple majority vote.
2. Many school districts would regard as an acceptable alternative that the amount which can be made legal by a simple majority vote would be \$6.00 per \$100 assessed valuation.
3. A commitment on the part of the state legislature that state funding of elementary and secondary education will be significantly increased.
4. Legislative action which would equalize assessments on a statewide basis.
5. In view of the increasing difficulty with which local school districts are able to get local voter approval for increased school revenues, the state legislature

should seriously consider a statewide education tax through which the state's education fund could be significantly increased.

6. Finally, there is an urgent need for a study conducted by the legislature in conjunction with the Department of Education relative to the most reasonable and effective means of promoting racial integration in Missouri's schools. The organization of current school districts is not adequate for this task.

Article IX, Section 1a, of the Missouri Constitution provides in part that "the general assembly shall establish and maintain free public schools for the gratuitous instruction of all persons in this state within ages not in excess of twenty-one years as prescribed by law."

In response to this constitutional mandate, the general assembly established local boards of education to make all needful rules and regulations for the organization, grading and government in the district. In addition to enacting a school code to give guidance and direction to local boards, the general assembly has enacted many other laws which either directly or indirectly affect school operations, such as the laws governing taxation, property assessment and elections.

Legislative Actions

The legislature has given educational concerns attention each year. Each year over two hundred bills are introduced affecting education, many of which do not become law. However, the number of bills is indicative both of the high interest legislators have in education and the need for citizens to provide legislators with timely information as to the impact of a particular bill.

The First Regular Session of the Seventy-Ninth General Assembly was particularly productive and again emphasized the ability of a democratic system of government to assess the needs of the state and respond to those needs with progressive, forward-thinking legislation.

Perhaps ranking highest among the many pieces of legislation positively affecting public schools is the new formula for distributing state aid. The new formula, which includes a membership count, a guaranteed tax base, and an income factor as another measure of a district's ability to pay, provides for greater equalization of dollars available for education among districts.

Additionally, the General Assembly provided for state reimbursement for part-time students and allowed for more flexibility in determining what constitutes a school day during inclement weather. The retirement systems for both certificated and noncertificated were also improved.

Notwithstanding the impressive record of legislative enactments by the First Regular Session of the Seventy-Ninth General Assembly, school districts in urban communities are still faced with the difficult task of financing a quality educational program for

an increasingly heterogeneous population. The problem of adequate financing stems in part from inequities and inconsistencies in property tax administration within the state, within the counties, and among school districts. Apparently no one seriously challenges the fact that there are inequities among counties. Inconsistencies within a district specifically impact on the ability of a district to raise revenue locally. Not only do levies bring in less revenue because of under-valued assessment, but the inconsistencies among neighborhood assessed valuations contribute adversely to the ability of a school district to raise tax rates, which in most instances requires a two-thirds majority vote.

Although a mandated statewide reassessment appears to be essential and desirable, it is equally important that county and township assessors be encouraged to improve property tax administration with counties. An assessor presently has the authority to reassess within his county; however, it appears that inequities in property assessment will be remedied only through mandatory legislated requirements for improved property tax administration.

Without consistent assessments at 33 1/3 percent of true value, school districts need relief from the two-thirds majority requirement for increasing tax rates. This would require a constitutional change.

Another immediate concern to public schools is the loss of local autonomy by way of federal regimentation. Increasingly, the federal government is using federal funds as the vehicle to regulate various aspects of the school programs unrelated to the federal funds. The Privacy Rights of Parents and Students, Title IX, and the regulations prohibiting discrimination on the basis of handicapping conditions are just a few examples. Implementation of the specific provisions of these and other regulations and submitting to cumbersome reporting requirements and questionable investigations are costly and time-consuming.

NOTE: See Appendix A of this chapter for a summary of House Bill 131.

Appendix A (To Chapter XII) House Bill 131

May 18, 1977

Section 162.975 (page 2, lines 12-16) provides for increased annual reimbursement rates for special programs for the handicapped and severely handicapped (\$6,000), classes of educable mentally retarded pupils (\$4,500), and remedial reading classes (\$3,500). The rates are to change annually by the percent the appropriation for the Foundation Program varies from the previous year. This is a compounding process. If appropriations increase year after year, the percent is applied to an ever-increasing base. (However, if appropriations do not increase or are decreased, these types of changes are

reflected in the handicapped children apportionment.)

Section 163.011—Definitions begin on page 3 at the bottom of the page. New definitions in this section of the law are:

1. Adjusted Gross Income
 - a. District Adjusted Gross Income Per Return
 - b. State Adjusted Gross Income Per Return
 - c. District Income Factor.
2. Full-time equivalence of part-time and summer school pupils is added to the average daily attendance (page 4, lines 24 through 36).
3. Eligible Pupils—50 percent membership and 50 percent average daily attendance (ADA).
4. Equalization level (page 5) for assessed valuation and tax rates is increased to 33 1/3 percent (percent of true value specified in Section 137.115, RSMo.).
5. Guaranteed Tax Base (page 5) guarantees every child the minimum level of assessed valuation equal to that of the district which contains the 85th percentile of the pupils in the state. The state will apportion the funds needed to bring every district to that level. The GTB increases annually by one percentile until the 90th is reached.
6. Membership (page 6) is to be determined by a two-count method—enrolled pupils who have attended scheduled classes at least once during a ten-day period prior to the fourth Wednesday in September and the fourth Wednesday in January.

Suggested Readings

ACIR, *Improving Urban America, A Challenge to Federalism*, Washington, D.C., (September, 1976).

ACIR, *State Legislative Program: 3. State and Local Revenues*, (1975).

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U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *State and Local Government Special Series No. 72—State and Local Ratio Studies and Property Assessment*, (1975).

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SECTION IV

INNOVATIVE PROGRAMS AND ACTIVITIES

CHAPTER XIII

OUTSTANDING EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS AND PROJECTS IN MISSOURI

It must not be concluded from the summaries and points of view presented in previous chapters of this report that the schools of urban Missouri are in a hopeless morass of problems, unable to make significant strides towards meeting some of these problems. While it is true that such matters as adequate financial support, meaningful and stable school integration, and needed changes in school law might well be beyond the local district's ability to completely or even adequately solve, many of these schools, through the ingenuity of their own people, have mounted a number of innovative and exciting programs which have had real success on the promise thereof in enabling the urban school to surmount some problems.

In response to the Urban Education Committee's survey questionnaire, most school districts sent in brief descriptions of some of their many projects and programs designed to meet the urban challenge. On the pages which follow, a number of these projects have been briefly described. Space limitations would not permit a full description of each project, neither were we able to list all of the many programs that were sent in.

The Committee believes that even these brief program descriptions will prove suggestive to persons throughout Missouri interested in helping children realize their potential for growth and development. Possibly, readers will use these descriptions as springboards towards even more unique and effective projects and programs which they can develop for their local schools and districts, both urban and rural. Perhaps, at some time in the future, a separate manual of "new curricular ideas and projects" can be developed with full details of procedures and materials.

For the present, however, readers are urged to review these ideas as an indication of what can be done, and develop others of their own of equal innovation and excitement.

For the sake of brevity, which made possible the inclusion of 51 special projects in this report, the following format has been used:

Name of school district in which the special program or project originated;

Title of the project;

Number of participants, both students and teachers;

Project goals and objectives;

Major project activities;

Major project results;

School district person to contact for more information.

Successful and Innovative Educational Programs and Projects

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Sedalia No. 200

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:

Picture Lady Program

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—Approx. 2,500

Teachers—All Elementary Teachers

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

Enrichment, appreciation of art, and generally a strengthening of the art program.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

Seven volunteers come into the school once per month in each elementary school for twenty minutes per class. Each volunteer is assigned an artist plus one local artist to show his/her work. Pictures remain in the classroom until the next month.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

The program has resulted in a broadened art background for elementary pupils.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Earl R. Finley

Title Assistant Superintendent

Address 400 West 4th Street, Sedalia, Missouri 65301

Telephone 816/836-1054

SCHOOL DISTRICT: St. Joseph School District

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:

5th Grade Art Appreciation Project

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—1,110

Teachers—53

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

Develop art appreciation for 5th grade students through a workshop activity at the Albrecht Art Museum.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

In 1½ hours, the students, in groups of approximately 20, are given 3 short programs by the museum docents. One group tours the temporary and permanent exhibits. Another group hears a slide/talk presentation on paintings, and the 3rd group draws pictures of their favorite work of art.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

According to the report made to the superintendent by the director of the Albrecht Art Museum, the program is quite successful. Students have an opportunity to look, listen, and participate in an art activity.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Jerre Cooper
Title Director, Elementary Education
Address 10th and Felix, St. Joseph, Missouri 64501
Telephone 816/279-5371

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Raytown Consolidated School District #2**NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:**

Children's Theatre

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—6,000

Teachers—2 plus homeroom teachers

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

(1) The techniques and production of children's theatre is a part of high school curriculum; thus this goal is met. (2) Elementary students are exposed to a variety of literature brought to life through a live production.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

High school students troupe the production to each of the eleven elementary schools. In 1976, each school saw two productions pertaining to the bicentennial theme. In 1977, each elementary school has seen one production.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

The program appears to be very gratifying for

both the high school student and the elementary student. The high school student has the opportunity to use new techniques. The elementary students are exposed to an exciting form of literature.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Jonnie S. McMeheh
Title Coordinator - Speech, Theatre Arts, Drama Department
Address 10500 East 60th Terrace, Raytown, Missouri 64133
Telephone 816/356-3600

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Raytown C-2**NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:**

Visiting Crafts People in the Elementary Schools

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—1,300

Teachers—12

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

To bring to the elementary students community people who were practicing the Craft Arts. The project also gave an opportunity for community people to become acquainted with the schools and the elementary art program.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

The crafts people worked with individual classrooms within selected grade levels. After the demonstration, the art teacher devised a classroom activity which incorporated techniques the students had observed and discussed with the crafts people.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

The staff and students involved were very enthusiastic about the project, and the resulting classroom activities showed that the students did indeed have a better understanding of the Craft Arts. The crafts people had a better understanding of classroom situations.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Miss Jean A. Harrison
Title Art Coordinator
Address 10500 E. 60th Terrace, Raytown, Missouri 64133
Telephone 816/356-3600

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Kirkwood R-VII School District**NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:**

Exploratory Teaming

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—500

Teachers—5

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

A technique in the Fine and Practical Arts in emerging middle schools to help youngsters develop specific skills in each subject area while simultaneously fostering qualities of respect, responsibility, a pride in workmanship, and a positive self-concept.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

Eighth grade students take three courses under the Explo Team. The fields offered are music lab, art, home economics, industrial arts, and speech/drama. The team utilizes interdisciplinary teaching techniques to give students a greater understanding of common concepts.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

This concept has given students the opportunity to explore and place into perspective the fine and practical arts. The teaming has drawn the total school curriculum into closer working harmony. The middle youngster is helped to better understand himself and his world.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Dr. James H. Fox

Title Assistant Superintendent, Secondary Education

Address 1110 S. Glenwood Lane, Kirkwood, Missouri 63122

Telephone 314/966-5700, Ext. 240

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Blue Springs R-IV**NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:**

Creative Time

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—800

Teachers—1

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

Each child is given the opportunity to explore many facets of creative thinking and originality, experience the joys of personal creativity without the pressure of grades, and develop skill in creativity, both in planning and in executing projects.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

Activities designed to promote creative skills include dramatics, puppetry, creative writing, cooking, decorating, brainstorming, filmmaking, art activities, study of transactional analysis, self-giving and problem solving. (All are cor-

related with the regular curriculum whenever possible.)

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

Teachers, students, and the public in general have generated a great deal of enthusiasm. We have had a lot of publicity from newspapers, television, and one article published in the March, 1976, issue of *School and Community*. But most important, pupils have developed significant creative skills and motivations.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Barbara Landes

Title Teacher - Creative Time (James Lewis, Elementary)

Address 717 Park Road, Blue Springs, Missouri 64015

Telephone 816/229/1175

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Independence School District**NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:**

Prevention-Diagnosis Reading Problems

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—3,300

Teachers—166

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

To establish a firm foundation of pre-reading and beginning reading skills at the K - 1st grade level. The focus of the program is primarily on that K - 1 learner who evidences a problem that will interfere with reading skill development.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

Class sessions and workshops to provide the teacher with knowledge in the relationship between child development, learning modality and reading developments; and techniques for detection, diagnosis, and correction. Classroom visitations and assistance by consultants.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

(1) The program has been continued beyond the period of federal funding with teachers participating in the sessions two and three times. (2) Kindergarten students scored higher on the Metropolitan tests. (3) Fewer second graders are having to take the Title I Reading Program.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Norma Osborn

Title Reading Consultant, Oldham Education Center

Address 14220 E. 35th Street, Independence, Missouri 64055

Telephone 816/833-0042

SCHOOL DISTRICT: St. Joseph School District

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:

Foundation for Reading

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—68

Teachers—1

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

A reading class for students who are deficient in their reading ability. Goal is to raise a student's reading level to where it is more congruent with his grade level. Objectives are to create a desire to read, to increase vocabulary, and to increase the knowledge of word attack skills.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

Books such as the *Action Library* from *Scope* are utilized. Word lists from the individual student's reading; thus the student learns words he does not know. Increase word attack skills. Materials are provided on an individual basis according to area of weaknesses.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

In 1974-75, 33% of the students' levels were raised. During the summer of 1975, 100% of the persons working in the program improved their levels. In 1975-76, 76% of all pupils involved in Foundation raised their reading levels (some as much as 3 years).

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Venetha E. Smith

Title Teacher

Address 3222 N. 36th Terrace, St. Joseph, Missouri 64506

Telephone 816/233-2328

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Springfield R-12 School District

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:

Developmental Reading Center for Junior High

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—1,950

Teachers—9

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

To provide an instructional system that allows the teacher to define each student's reading needs and prescribe appropriate activities to fill those needs. The system provides for individualized prescriptions and immediate feedback.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

English teachers instruct in the Reading Centers. 700 pre-post tests on levels from beginning

reading through high school levels. Prescription work is provided for students. Prescriptions are continued and are based on whether the student passes or fails the post test.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

The reading section of the Metropolitan Test showed that students' scores have risen from the 56th percentile in 1974-75 to the 60th percentile in 1975-76. Students develop independence in their learning, and they develop better attitudes about reading.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Venita Bridger

Title Coordinator, Secondary Language Arts

Address 940 N. Jefferson, Springfield, Missouri 65802

Telephone 417/862-9211, Ext. 365

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Maplewood-Richmond Heights

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:

Improved Communications Development

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—1,339

Teachers—58

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

A Title IV-C ESEA project designed to integrate speaking, listening, and writing skills into the overall fabric of language arts. Places emphasis on an approach to communications skills which defines language as our link with other people and the environment through reading, writing, speaking, listening, and nonverbal communications.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

A performance objective continuum in speaking, listening, and writing, for grades K-6 has been developed with the objectives subdivided into three levels for each category: core, review, and enrichment. Each student's progress is followed individually along the continuum.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

Yearly student progress in the ICD program is measured by pre- and post-test instruments created by project staff and outside consultants. The gains realized are significant in the speaking and listening areas.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name David W. Detering

Title Director, Improved Communications Development

Address 7539 Manchester Road, Maplewood,
Missouri 63143
Telephone 314/644-4400

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Riverview Gardens

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:

Phase Elective Language Arts for Grades 10-12

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—1,500

Teachers—20

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

Specific semester level courses are targeted for remediation, enrichment, and special interest measures.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

The curriculum is designed so that students work through special activities in Communicative Skills, American Literature, and Writing, Composition, Grammar, Analytical Writing, Reading Improvement, Journalism, Speech, and several other areas.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

Ongoing evaluation.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name George E. Kiser, Ed.D.

Title Assistant Superintendent for Instruction

Address 1370 Northumberland, St. Louis,
Missouri 63137

Telephone 314/869-2505

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Parkway School District

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:

Staff Improvement Program in Reading

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—0

Teachers—168

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

The project proposes to improve reading instruction by improving the professional competencies of teachers and administrators in a systematically planned staff improvement program.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

Use of *The Inventory of Teacher Knowledge of Reading*, by A. Sterl Artley, on a pre-post basis. Other activities include observation of the learning process, techniques of identifying disabled readers, and techniques of interpretation of diagnostic data.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

As a result of the staff improvement in reading, the participating personnel will be able to demonstrate improved techniques of instruction, diagnosis, and remediation for readers. Improvement in both the cognitive and affective domain will be assessed.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Dr. Robert H. Arnsperger

Title Assistant Superintendent for Instructional Services

Address 455 North Woods Mill Road, Chesterfield, Missouri 63017

Telephone 314/434-8412

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Rockwood School District

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:

Improving Teacher Skills/Reading Instruction

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—5,351

Teachers—130

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

The purpose of the project is to: improve teacher knowledge and skills relative to individualized reading instruction, improve student achievement in reading and attitude toward reading, and to develop a Rockwood Reading Guide.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

Activities included 3 workshops and follow-up workshops and supervision during the school year. The summer workshops were led by nationally recognized reading experts. Participation was about 50% for the three summer workshops.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

(1) Success in increasing teacher knowledge and skills relative to individualized reading, (2) success in improving student attitude toward reading, (3) successfully completed a Rockwood Reading Guide, and (4) limited success in improving student achievement in reading.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Tom J. Krebs

Title Federal Program Coordinator

Address 1430 Flora Del, Fenton, Missouri
63026

Telephone 314/825-4515

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Columbia Public Schools

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:

Reading Instruction in the Content Areas

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—2,905 (including parochial)
Teachers—88

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

Thus far, the objectives have been to improve teacher skills needed for teaching reading in the content areas (science, mathematics, English, social studies, art, etc.). A guidebook was developed, and the teaching of assessment techniques and reading skills was included.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

(1) Development of a guide book to provide information and samples of instruments designed for reading assessment, etc.; (2) Workshops to further acquaint teachers with these skills; (3) Teacher observations by reading resource teachers and feedback sessions.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

Data are limited; however, the teachers have completed the required 48 hours of workshops. The reading resource teachers report that these teachers are employing the skills in assessments and remediations during their daily teaching.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Mrs. Carol Nelson
Title Project Director
Address Jefferson Junior High School, 743
Rogers, Columbia, Missouri 65201
Telephone 314/449-3861

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Kansas City, Missouri**NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:**

Operation "Read/Math"

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—50,000
Teachers—1,200

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

A concerned effort to improve reading/mathematics achievement for elementary school students in the Kansas City, Missouri, Public Schools. It was designed to "crack the reading problem" in a large urban school system.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

(1) Developmental Reading/Mathematics through workshops for all elementary teachers and through supportive services for teachers in their classrooms. (2) Remedial Reading, Auxiliary Services, and parental involvement.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

The districtwide median in reading for third grade students showed a gain of one month for

each of the two years. However, budgetary cutbacks for the 1976-1977 school year dissolved the program before it made its potential impact on student achievement.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Dr. Marian Alice Simmons
Title District Coordinator for Instructional Services
Address 1211 McGee Street, Room 805A,
Kansas City, Missouri 64106
Telephone 816/221-7565

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Parkway School District**NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:**

Elementary Mathematics Deficiency Remediation

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—2,011
Teachers—170

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

The project concentrates on the development of teaching skills in the area of diagnosis and remediation of mathematical deficiencies among elementary school children. Among the tasks to be accomplished are: project staff training, student needs identification, instructional staff development, and evaluation.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

(1) An extensive six-week training program. (2) A comprehensive in-service program for classroom teachers. (3) Provision of demonstration laboratories where teachers can observe and use (under supervision) project developed techniques, materials, and activities with children.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

The program began in August 1976. The results of the program cannot be determined at this time, but it is anticipated that the goals of the project will be achieved.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Dr. Robert H. Araspiger
Title Assistant Superintendent for Instructional Services
Address 455 North Woods Mill Road, Chesterfield, Missouri 63017
Telephone 314/434-8412

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Columbia Public Schools**NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:**

Conceptually-Oriented Mathematics Program

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—6,600

Teachers—Elementary Teachers, 7-8 Math Teachers

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

Individualizes mathematics instruction through continuous diagnosis and prescription for mathematics study. Learning groups are provided materials and activities to achieve behavioral objectives. Mastery of concept is evaluated at each level.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

Pretest given for student placement in each of 25 levels for grades 1-8. Multiple activities are specified for behavioral goals at each concept level. Post-tests are given at individual rates, using criterion referenced tests. Students are regrouped for further teaching.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

A system approach for teachers is provided which places students into appropriate instructional groups based upon achievement in terms of specified objectives. Diagnostic instruments provide student profile for evaluation.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Harold Steere
Title Assistant Superintendent
Address 1002 Range Line, Columbia, Missouri 65201
Telephone 314/449-3133

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Kansas City

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:

Computer Assisted Instruction

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—1,600
Teachers—4

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

An approach to improve the basic mathematic computational and conceptual skills of 8th grade students in the areas of whole numbers, fractions, decimals, ratios and proportions, and percents.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

CAI math lessons diagnose computational or conceptual weaknesses and provide immediate individualized instruction, drill and practice. Lessons are presented (for ½ hour per week) via IBM 3277 cathode ray tubes with an attached keyboard.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

Junior High students gained an average of 1-6 grade levels as determined by the SRA mathe-

matics section. The DAT numerical ability test showed an average gain of 20 percentiles for other Junior High students. The results were for the school year 1975-1976.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Jack L. Casner
Title Specialist, Secondary Curriculum
Address Board of Education, 1211 McGee, Kansas City, Missouri 64106
Telephone 816/221-7576, ext. 325

SCHOOL DISTRICT: St. Joseph

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:

Individual Research in Science

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—11th and 12th graders
Teachers—

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

To provide those students who show exceptional ability in the field of science to pursue research in a field of their choosing. It is hoped that the "hands-on" manner will help students develop an acute interest in the field of science.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

Each school provided \$1800 to purchase necessary equipment. Each student is assigned to a staff member who acts as coordinator of the project. Each student is required to complete and turn in a research paper following the established guidelines.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

Four students are currently working on projects this year. Last year four students successfully completed projects. Students' interest in the program continues to be high. Most students work hard on their projects, completing them within required time and with a great deal of proficiency.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Mr. G. M. Coleman
Title Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Instruction
Address 10th and Felix, St. Joseph, Missouri 64501
Telephone 816/279-2605

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Ferguson-Florissant R-2 School District

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:

Career Education: "Cool Valley Bucks"

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—150
Teachers—2

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

The Career Education Program involves 4th, 5th, and 6th grade students working as employees of staff members for pay. The goal is to help students develop responsibility and become acquainted with the process of obtaining and keeping a job, while permitting them to earn money.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

Briefly, the student applies for a job, is interviewed, and, if hired, works on a regular basis for his school staff "employer." He is paid in school-made money which can be spent in a store run by the school mothers' club and financed mainly by the school P.T.O.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

The student workers learn acceptance of responsibilities and the value of money. They understand the responsibilities involved in working a regular job, being prompt and dependable. The teachers are generally able to cover more areas and give more individual help with the aid of student workers.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Mrs. Marsha Robison
Title Kindergarten Teacher
Address 1351 S. Florissant Road, St. Louis, Missouri 63121
Telephone 314/595-2169

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Special School District

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:

Title VIIb "Stress-Challenge"

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—450
Teachers—75

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

A program designed to teach functional life skills and direct cause and effect educational skills, improve individual self-concepts and interpersonal relationships and increase awareness and appreciation of ecology and the environment.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

In a safe outdoor environment, using adequate skill instruction, students participate in individual and group camping experiences. Emphasis is placed upon the individual enjoying the wilderness environment without destroying it.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

Students have expressed increased feelings of self-worth and teachers have reported that the teamwork stressed in the program has resulted in

the development of interpersonal relationships and a more cohesive atmosphere in the classroom.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Gerald M. Montgomery
Title Teacher
Address 12110 Clayton Road, Town and Country, Missouri 63131
Telephone 314/567-3100

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Joplin

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:

DUSO

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—2,500
Teachers—123

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

The program is based on the premise that the classroom teacher can help the child with normal developmental problems. It specifies that students in Grades K-4 will show an average increase of 20 percent in the positive direction as measured by the DUSO Affective Assessment Device.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

Counselors familiarize the teachers with DUSO D-1 and D-2 kits (in-service). Counselors and principals assist in implementation. The materials are designed to stimulate social and emotional development through planned experiences.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

The kits are being used in various classrooms, and comments have been positive. Also, teachers were given in-service training. The students were given a pretest; post-test results are expected to provide hard data.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Dr. William Davis
Title Assistant Superintendent, Elementary Division
Address 1717 E. 15th Street, Joplin, Missouri 64801
Telephone 417/624-3900

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Kansas City

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:

Multi-Media Approach to Instruction

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—As Requested
Teachers—1,000

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

A Title IV-C Project to provide in-service training to staff members in the area of selection, preparation and utilization of instructional materials in the classroom, and the operation of audiovisual equipment.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

Workshops are provided for students and staff members as requested during the day or after school. Limited Saturday sessions are provided for in-depth activities. Training packages developed by the instructional team are issued.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

There has been an impact on participating staff members which is evidenced by an impressive active participation in workshops, a greater use of audiovisual equipment, and greater teacher involvement in preparation of instructional materials.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Bobbie M. Sharpe
Title District Coordinator of Instructional Resources
Address 1211 McGee, Kansas City, Missouri 64106
Telephone 816/221-7565, ext. 235

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Blue Springs**NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:**

Driver and Traffic Safety Education I

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—
Teachers—3

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

Provide the secondary school driver education student with knowledge and skills for accident free driving.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

Through the use of visual aids, guided learning, and actual on-street driving experiences, the student is introduced to simple to complex driving situations and maneuvers.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

Too soon to fully assess its impact.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name John R. Montgomery
Title Co-Director, Driver and Traffic Safety
Address 2000 R.D. Mize Road, Blue Springs, Missouri 64015
Telephone 816/229-9131

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Kansas City #33 School District**NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:**

Cooperative Urban Teacher Education Program

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—20-25 per semester
Teachers—4 (plus numerous consultants - 50 per semester)

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

(1) Make teachers aware and understand their own, as well as their pupils' environment, life styles, values, culture, etc. (2) Provide teachers with a means by which to surface concerns and problems, etc. (3) Make teachers aware of problem-solving methods, so as to be instructionally competent and more productive with pupils.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

Seminars and field experiences, for example: minority awareness, social stratification, nature of poverty, speech characteristics, prejudice, deviant behavior, discipline, school visitations, and community analyses.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

Teachers who were prepared through C.U.T.E. showed a significant "rating" in the areas of: using an inquiry approach, being more creative, being more child oriented.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Mrs. Emma Jean Clark
Title Elementary Curriculum Specialist
Address Room 810, 1211 McGee, Kansas City, Missouri 64111
Telephone 816/221-7565, Ext. 281

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Brentwood Public Schools**NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:**

Seventh and Eighth Grade Homeroom Program

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—215
Teachers—3

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

To improve the self-concept of the students and, in turn, improve their behavior toward other people. The general goals are (1) to explore problems presented by students and feelings about these problems; (2) to explore interactions; (3) to explore alternatives for change.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

Every 7th and 8th grade student meets once a week for 35 minutes with his or her counselor

and a teacher. The theme of the discussions concerns the questions, "Who Am I?" "How Do I Fit into Society?" and "How Do I Handle My Problems?" Activities involve viewing and discussion of appropriate films, role playing, and values clarification activities.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

The students seem to have a greater awareness of self and the program has provided a place for them to be themselves in an atmosphere of acceptance and support. They are beginning to learn to solve personal problems by accepting responsibility for themselves.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Mrs. Arline Kalishman
Title Principal, Brentwood Junior High School
Address 2221 High School Drive, Brentwood, Missouri 63144
Telephone 314/962-7233, Ext. 64

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Ferguson-Florissant R-2 School District

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:
Advisement Program

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—11,104
Teachers—456

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

The goal is personalizing the educational experience through personal interaction between a teacher and student. Advisement includes improved student decision making and career planning, and increased positive home/school communication through active parent involvement.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

Each advisor (teacher) works with a small group of students while getting to know each student (advisee) personally, assists students individually in maintaining a record of their programs and plans for post-high school experiences; communicates unmet advisee needs to the school; and maintains parental involvement.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

Students tend to be more purposeful, self-directed learners. They feel that teachers respect them and understand their needs and interests. This success-oriented program emphasizes success for all students and recognition of the potential of each. Advisors must transmit this sense of confidence to their advisees.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Robert J. Cowles

Title Project Director, Advisement Program
Address McCluer North High School, 705 Waterford, Florissant, Missouri 63033
Telephone 314/595-2310/2311

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Maplewood-Richmond Heights

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:
School Within a School (SWS)

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—225
Teachers—8

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

To help 9th grade students adjust to high school through a feeling of belonging. To help 9th grade teachers to know the students as individuals.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

Each student spends 3 or 4 periods in the SWS in academic core subjects and elects other subjects from the school at large. The three SWS units are Traditional, Fine Arts, and Practical Arts. Teachers have a group and a personal planning period.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

Some of the results are: (1) high staff morale, (2) teachers can jointly decide on the best program or can contact parents when necessary, and (3) students feel that they know their teachers better and have many informal discussions with the staff.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Mary Morgan
Title Director of Traditional Unit of SWS
Address 739 Manchester Road, Maplewood; Missouri 63143
Telephone 314/781-8433

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Kirkwood R-7

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:
Sixth-Seventh Grade Multi-Grade Level Teaming

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—77
Teachers—3

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

An alternative learning environment for students is provided. The program provides an opportunity for a child to move from his present competencies toward whatever level he is able

to achieve. The student is actively involved in planning his/her learning activities.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

Math and language arts are taught on an individual basis. Science and social studies are taught in learning situations. Interdisciplinary units are developed to correlate the disciplines of math, science, language arts, and social studies.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

This is the first year of the program and results have not yet been obtained.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Thomas E. Moeller
Title Principal
Address 700 S. Kirkwood Road, Kirkwood, Missouri 63122
Telephone 314/966-5700, Sta. 300

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Ferguson-Florissant R-2 School District

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:
Education Center

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—150-250 per year
Teachers—9

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

To work (at the center) with "turned-off, tuned-out" students from our high schools and junior high schools. Students are seen on an individual and small group basis. Students are registered at their home school and credits are earned on a contract basis and fed back to the home school.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

We use work and volunteer experiences, field trips, guest speakers, movies, and every innovative procedure possible to turn students "on" to education. Our question is, "What Are You Into?" and we use student interest to develop meaningful, exciting assignments.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

(1) Over 350 students have graduated. (2) Over 1200 students have been helped by our program to earn high school credits. They have graduated or returned to their home school. (3) The dropout rate has gone from 7.2% to less than 4% for grades 9 - 12 since 1972.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Nessen Blumberg
Title Coordinator of Education Center
Address 500 Airport Road, Ferguson, Missouri 63135
Telephone 314/595-2333

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Rockwood

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:
Flexible Schedule

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—225
Teachers—8

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

A program designed to allow for more individualization of student learning and promote an atmosphere whereby students take more responsibility for their learning. Special groupings are formed so that the size of the group best fits the type of instruction being given.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

The activities of the program are centered around large group instruction (once a week per class), small group seminars (two per week per class) and independent study (about 40% of the time). The large groups impart information; the small groups primarily enhance discussion and independent study time allows for research opportunities.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

Survey instruments administered on participants and graduates have been positive in support of this type of scheduling.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name G. W. Montgomery
Title Principal, Lafayette High School
Address 1375 Clayton Road, Ballwin, Missouri 63011
Telephone 314/527-0100

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Brentwood Public Schools

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:
Alternative Education Program

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—153
Teachers—36

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

A program designed to increase student self-confidence and motivation by giving them a greater degree of freedom and responsibility in fulfilling their individual educational needs, while completing graduation requirements.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

Students may select learning styles from 20 alternative programs which include: Off-campus Instruction Program, The Working World Program, In-School Service Program, Independent

Study Program, and the High School Achievement Program.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

This highly successful program has provided alternative modes of learning for students on all levels, including the gifted. The enrollment of approximately 150 students each year is supported by the community and commitments by the school staff.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Donald W. Cline
Title Director of Alternative Education
Address Brentwood High School, 221 High School Dr., Brentwood, Missouri 63144
Telephone 314/962-7233

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Kansas City, Missouri

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:

Program for Indochinese Refugee Students

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—289
Teachers—20

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

(1) to make the student feel comfortable and successful at school, (2) directed toward a continuation of the cognitive development in the English language with the ultimate goal of total integration, (3) the program promotes an awareness of and empathy with Vietnamese, Laotian, and Cambodian cultural values.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

English as a Second Language (ESL) techniques, emphasizing the audio-lingual approach to verbal communication. Included are: structural pattern drills, dialogue/conversation practices, and context and structured oriented pictures. Texts and supplemental materials and equipment are utilized extensively.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

The success of the program has been greater and more immediate than was expected. The community at large has received the efforts of the district to meet the challenge of providing an adequate education for the Indochinese children most favorably.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Nina M. Robb
Title Consultant, Indochinese Program
Address 1600 Linwood Blvd., Kansas City, Missouri 64109
Telephone 816/923/7337

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Independence School District

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:

Operation "Independence"

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—15
Teachers—5

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

(1) Conduct positive awareness values sessions to better understand the handicapped child and his needs.
(2) Teach the handicapped dropout or potential dropout (ages 14-20) in an alternative learning situation by providing individual instruction.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

I. (a) Present programs and discussion groups for the community. (b) Use all forms of the media to develop public awareness. (c) Conduct individual and group sessions for parents to target students. II. Operation Independence will also prescribe individual programs of study and conduct counseling conferences with the student and his parents.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

The program is fairly new, and statistical data are not currently available. However, each student currently enrolled is working productively toward his educational goals. Parents are relieved to learn that such a program finally exists in Independence.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Shelia Pool
Title Coordinator - Operation Independence
Address 14220 East 35th Street, Independence, Missouri 64055
Telephone 816/833-0681

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Special School District of St. Louis County

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:

Learning Implemented by Functional Experiences

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—45 - 50
Teachers—2

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

To provide a functional nonacademic approach in preparing adolescent EMR for the world of work.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

The basis for the program (LIFE) is pupil exposure through experiences in as many different real-life situations as possible. Each pupil is given the responsibility for performing personal and job-related tasks via "hands-on" approaches.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

It is an ongoing program.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name June Schware
Title Principal, Northview School
Address 1520 Derhake Road, Florissant, Missouri 63033
Telephone 314/567-3700

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Special School District of St. Louis County

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:

Parent-Infant and Pre-school Program for Hearing Impaired

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—35
Teachers—13

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

The main goals of the program are to provide early preschool expanded education for auditorially impaired children, integration of auditorially impaired children with normal hearing children, and intensive work with parents of auditorially impaired children.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

All high risk children will be seen for audiometric screening and/or complete audiological work-up upon referral. Children with conductive losses will be referred to appropriate medical personnel for proper medication or surgery. Each child will be helped to develop social and emotional growth.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

Children are being prepared for a preschool experience in a normal school setting. Prevention of secondary problems for deaf-blind infants which might have been caused by lack of amplification PT/OT, family counseling, and educational readiness.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Robert L. Huskey
Title Assistant Superintendent
Address 12110 Clayton Road, Town and Country, Missouri 63131
Telephone 314/567-3700, Ext. 241

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Special School District

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:

MACC: Mobile Access to Community Experience

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—30
Teachers—2

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

An attempt to enlarge and expand the experiences of educable mentally retarded young adolescents using a school bus as a classroom and going into the community in order to learn by seeing. Additionally, there is curricular emphasis on improving reading by stimulating vocabulary development and enriching language.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

A 24-passenger school bus is used as a mobile classroom, though the children work from a "home-base" room at the Lincoln School. The bus is equipped with an ice chest, clipboards, totetrays, and a make-shift chart stand for group work.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

Pre-test and post-test psychometric comparison (of initial population) indicated significant increase in Performance and Full Scale IQ.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Brian R. Bender
Title Principal, Lincoln School
Address 12110 Clayton Road, Town & Country, Missouri 63131
Telephone 314/567-3700, Ext. 309

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Ferguson-Florissant R-2 School District

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:

Child Development Centers

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—Preschool: 70, High School: Approx. 250
Teachers—11

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

The goal will satisfy a child care need by providing a warm, responsive environment for the care and education of preschool children. The centers also provide an experiential learning for high school students in the Deliberate Psychological Education programs and the home economics course in child development.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

The children's activities are planned by profes-

sional teachers, as high school students accept increasing responsibilities for organization and routine tasks such as supervision, readiness for outdoor activities, toileting procedures, snack and lunch preparation, and construction of special projects.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

A successful goal verification of the project resulted in a State of Missouri validation of the program as effective/successful, exportable and resourceful, which enables other school districts to adopt a similar program.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Carol Rohlfing
Title Director, Child Development Centers
Address 705 Waterford Drive, Florissant, Missouri 63033
Telephone 314/595-2326

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Riverview Gardens

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:

Strategies in Early Childhood Education

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—450
Teachers—10

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

To analyze certain skills according to learning processes. To determine what level the child has obtained prior to entering school. We hope to move him along a behaviorally defined sequence until he reaches acceptable writing, reading, and arithmetic skills.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

Four or five learning centers will be set up within the classroom. Each center will have tapes, records, and teacher-made projects to strengthen weaknesses found during screening.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

This information will be made available.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Mr. Carl Fogerson
Title Director of Elementary Education
Address 1370 Northumberland Drive, St. Louis, Missouri 63137
Telephone 314/869-2505

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Springfield R-XII

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:

Primary Transitional Program, K-1

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—15
Teachers—2

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

To furnish the pupils a program with emphasis on areas such as: improving the self-concept, developing an awareness of environment and an attitude of inquiry, developing good listening skills, and developing concepts and cognitive thinking skills.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

Individual and small group instructions, kindergarten and prereading activities, special supplementary materials utilized. Distar Language I and Distar Reading I programs are used. Assistance by aides, and parent education through conferences and visitations.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

Pre-post test results will be used to help determine progress. Formal evaluation will be made using the California Achievement Test. If the pupils in the lower third of the class are really ready to be successful in "first grade" work the following year, they have made great progress.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Nell Sewell
Title Elementary Language Arts Coordinator
Address 940 N. Jefferson, Springfield, Missouri 65802
Telephone 417/862-9211, Ext. 363

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Mehlville R-9

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:

"Let's Get Ready for Kindergarten"

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—330
Teachers—5

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

- (1) Early identification of children lacking pre-school skills.
- (2) A planned program to meet specific needs of identified children.
- (3) Provision of parent education and materials to help these children.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

After children are identified, parents are invited to attend workshops in which they are given specifically designed learning packets and other assistance so that they can work with their own

children. A locally developed instrument, "Let's Go to School," is used to identify children.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

The statistical reports show evidence of student gain. In addition, there is much observable evidence that both parent's and child's self-confidence was enhanced. Statements from parents indicate this. Data are available on request.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Mrs. Gladine Liner
Title Director, Preschool
Address 3100 Lemay Ferry Road, St. Louis, Missouri
Telephone 314/892-5000, Ext. 120

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Ferguson-Florissant R-2 School District

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:
Program for Gifted and Talented Students

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—405
Teachers—7

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

Includes: (1) Providing a personalized program for each gifted/talented student through which participants explore and broaden their unique interests, and (2) Involving parents, teachers, principals, gifted students and members of the larger community in order to relate resources to individual student interests.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

A greater diversity of activities are provided, such as: filmmaking, ecology field trips, cultural events, foreign study, mini-field trips, evening seminars and peer counseling. A complete description of the activities is available.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

Students in the program are provided with an individualized and personalized opportunity to maximize their giftedness and talents beyond their regular school routine. An evaluation report is available.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Alvin J. Lager
Title Project Director for the Ferguson Junior High School
Address 701 January Avenue, Ferguson, Missouri 63135
Telephone 314/595-2229

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Sedalia #200

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:

Secondary Program for Academically Talented Students

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—60
Teachers—16

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

- (1) Identification of academically talented students.
- (2) Development of academic talents through the provision of staff and physical resources.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

- (1) Special learning project developed jointly by teachers and individual students.
- (2) Seminar study groups working on a particular special project or knowledge area.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

Thirty students completed special projects at Smith-Cotton High School during the 1975-76 school year. The program was expanded to include the Sedalia Junior High for 1976-1977.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Earl R. Finley
Title Assistant Superintendent
Address 400 W. 4th Street, Sedalia, Missouri 65301
Telephone 816/826-1054

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Kirkwood R-VII

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:
Prevocational Alternative School

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—32 - 60
Teachers—5

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

- To provide prevocational experience.
- To increase educational awareness and decision-making skills.
- To maintain these skills in an educational setting.
- To develop employability skills.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

Introduction to the following prevocational areas: (1) Mechanical shop, i.e., small engine, welding, metal smith; (2) Building trades; (3) Business and office skills; (4) Occupational home economics. Additional experiences: Career Ed., industrial site visits, and speakers.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

Our students for the most part will attend after

leaving here, an area technical school (16%), or they will return to the local high school to become involved in the COE program or the traditional curriculum (35%). According to Pre-Post test information, student basic skill development for the most part will increase for each student. (Approx. 16% are still in this school.)

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Ted A. Nickell
Title Program Coordinator
Address 245 Saratoga, Kirkwood, Missouri 63122
Telephone 314/966-5700, Ext. 333

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Ferguson-Florissant R-2 School District

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:
Prevocational Center

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—300
Teachers—10

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

To receive disadvantaged students from all secondary schools in the district and offer them an opportunity to explore "hands-on" activities at occupations in several occupational cluster areas.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

Students will actively engage in occupational hands-on activities in each of the occupational cluster areas. Students will have an opportunity to study the job duties, wages, advantages, and disadvantages of the occupations.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

The final result for each student is to enable the student to make a further vocational career choice. The courses taken at the Prevocational Center will aid each student to take further vocational courses in the district or at the Special School District.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Edward L. Radford
Title Director, Special Vocational Programs
Address 5929 Witt, Kinloch, Missouri 63140
Telephone 314/595-2356/2357

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Blue Springs R-4

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:
In-School Suspension Program

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—1,062
Teachers—1

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

An alternative in discipline designed to keep students in school. The main objectives are to give the student individual help with his/her studies, and also reduce the number of out-of-school suspensions. Counseling for parent and student is given. An added dividend is that the school can continue to receive state aid.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

Students are tutored in their class assignments. Students are counseled by their counselors and the instructors. The student is isolated from his/her peers.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

The program seems to be yielding good results. There were 161 in-school suspensions, thus permitting 161 students to be kept in school and keeping up progress the same as the nonsuspended students.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Gil Georgeff
Title Principal
Address 2103 West Vesper, Blue Springs, Missouri 64015
Telephone 816/229-1141

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Joplin R-8 School District

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:
"Satellite School"

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—40
Teachers—3

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

The "Satellite School" is an alternative high school with the two basic functions of dropout prevention and improvement of self-concept. All instruction is geared to meet the individual student's needs.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

(1) The student must meet the selection criteria and be referred by home school. (2) Extensive diagnostic testing is done by counselor. (3) The staff selects appropriate instructional levels and materials. (4) Students attend small classes and receive individual help.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

The program is new to the Joplin School System, and more extensive data will be available at the end of the first year. However, as a result of the first semester, a number of students who were flagged as potential dropouts are still attending school and making positive gains.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Dr. Robert Wolf
Title Assistant Superintendent, Secondary Division
Address 1717 E. 15th Street, Joplin, Missouri 64801
Telephone 417/624-3900

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Sedalia #200 School District**NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:**

Alternative Class - Educational Adjustment

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—160
Teachers—2

PURPOSES, GOALS AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

(1) Provide an alternative to suspension in discipline cases. (2) Prevent disruption of the regular classroom program by a few students. (3) Provide an opportunity for disruptive students to return to the regular classroom program when they have demonstrated attitudinal changes.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

Students with serious discipline problems work with a special teacher in continuing class assignments and attitudinal problems. Parental contacts are initiated by the alternative teacher. Students are reassigned to the regular classroom upon the recommendation of the alternative teacher.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

Results of this process show that an estimated 200 students, who were potential disciplinary drop-outs, have stayed in school and completed the high school program. Over 800 students have been enrolled in educational adjustment classes during its five-year existence.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Earl R. Finley
Title Assistant Superintendent
Address 400 West 4th Street, Sedalia, Missouri 65301
Telephone 816/826-1054

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Riverview Gardens**NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:**

Board of Education Ad-Hoc Committee on Discipline

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS:

Students—Has implications for all students
Teachers—Districtwide

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

(1) To insure that the Board, the community, and the staff have an understanding of the nature of discipline in the schools and (2) to review the present policies and procedures of the district with reference to discipline.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

The committee has held sessions with senior high administrators and with senior high faculty members; the discipline areas of concern were categorized. The committee plans to follow a similar format on the junior high level and the elementary level.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

Letters and a meeting informing parents of the problem. Plans are being made for meetings on pharmacology, the enforcement of laws, the prosecution and the resources available for parents and/or students seeking assistance. Student ID badges are being considered.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name George E. Kiser, Ed.D.
Title Assistant Superintendent for Instruction
Address 1370 Northumberland, St. Louis, Missouri 63137
Telephone 314/869-2505

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Clayton School District**NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:**

Evaluation System for Tenure Teachers

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS: (The system will apply to all professional employees, including the administrative staff and the superintendents.)

Students—
Teachers—

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

Emphasis is on the identification of from 3 - 5 specific areas of improvement which may have substantial impact on the quality of the teacher's performance. The plan is also designed to assist the teacher in planning the next five years of professional growth with district support and approval.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

Teachers may choose any one of four comparable models for their evaluation process - the client-centered, collegial, supervisory, or combination.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

A letter dated February 9, 1977, stated that this evaluation system, which will be administered on

a five-year rotating basis, had been inaugurated for tenure teachers. No further results have been stated.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Earl W. Hobbs
Title Superintendent
Address 7530 Maryland Avenue, Clayton,
Missouri 63105
Telephone 314/726-2550

SCHOOL DISTRICT: Clayton School District

NAME OF PROGRAM OR PROJECT:

Clayton-University City Joint Citizen's Committee

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS: (22 members - citizens, teachers, students, and board members)

Students—
Teachers—

PURPOSES, GOALS, AND OBJECTIVES OF PROGRAM:

To study ways in which the school districts of

Clayton and University City can cooperate to solve common problems posed by declining school enrollments. The committee makes recommendations that are of value, that might reasonably be supported by the citizens of both communities and that can be readily implemented.

MAJOR PROGRAM ACTIVITIES:

In its preliminary report, the committee has suggested cooperative in-service programs, extra-curricular programs, and the consolidation of business office functions—shared computer installation, etc.

MAJOR PROGRAM RESULTS:

The committee will complete its study in seven months (from February, 1977) and will make periodic reports to the Boards.

DISTRICT RESOURCE PERSON:

Name Earl W. Hobbs
Title Superintendent
Address 7530 Maryland Avenue, Clayton,
Missouri 63105
Telephone 314/726-2550